STYLE GUIDE
for
EDITORS
and
PROOFREADERS
of
IDRC BOOKS

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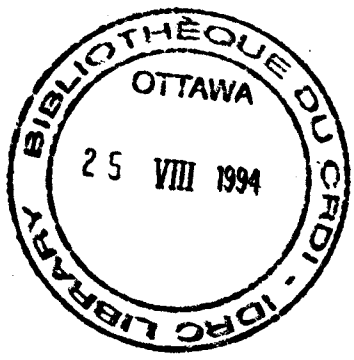

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If you have comments, corrections, or suggested additions for this style guide, please pass them, in writing, to

Bill Carman
Senior Science Writer/Editor
IDRC Books
250 Albert Street, PO Box 8500
Ottawa, ON
Canada K1G 3H9

Phone: (613) 236-6163 ext. 2089
Fax: (613) 563-0815
Internet: bcarman@idrc.ca

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FOREWORD

Although most of the instructions here are available in one of the sources listed at the end of this foreword, none of the sources covers all the subjects and, where they do cover the same one, they sometimes do not agree and give conflicting advice.

Therefore, over the years, the editors at IDRC have made choices where there is more than one "proper" way of answering an editorial question, whether the question deals with the position of punctuation in relation to quotation marks or the format for table footnotes. To make life easier for the editor working on IDRC books outside IDRC, these choices have been collected into one style guide.

In addition, the guide contains a number of points that required a certain amount of searching to find the correct answer: for example, where do you put the footnotes on a partially filled page? Also, there are some items that are just "IDRC style."

IDRC Books
October 1993

Main sources

For full citations see "References and Sources," page 89.

The Big Webster's — Gove (1981).

The Canadian Government Style Manual — Canada, Secretary of State (1985).

The CBE Style Manual — Council of Biology Editors (1983).

The Chicago Manual — University of Chicago Press (1979).

The FEAC Style Manual — Burton et al. (1987).

Hart's Rules — Hart (1983).

Modern English Usage or *Fowler's* — Fowler (1968).

National Geographic Atlas — National Geographic (1981).

Webster's Dictionary — Mish (1983).

Webster's Geographical Dictionary — Webster (1977).

Webster's Thesaurus — Kay (1976).

Words into Type — Skillin et al. (1974).

ONE — WORDS

SPELLING AUTHORITY

The authority for spelling in IDRC's English texts is *Webster's Third New International Dictionary*, with some exceptions.

Choice in Webster's

If *Webster's* gives more than one spelling for a word, the way in which they are presented determines which should be used.

If *also* separates the variants, the first entry must be used unless it conflicts with IDRC's spelling exceptions.

If *or* separates the variants, all may be considered standard and the choice is equal (in general, continue to select the first variant).

However, an official IDRC choice may have been made already; if so, it will be found in the listing on pages 2–5.

Rules and exceptions in *Webster's* — See *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* under "Spelling" 1.1–1.15 (pages 21a–23a).

Exceptions to Webster's

-our in such words as **honour, labour, favour,** and **colour**
-re in such words as **centre, theatre**
-ce in such words as **defence, licence (noun** and **verb)**

Rule 1

When **-ary, -ous, -ize,** or **-ation** are added to words ending in **-our**, the **u** of **-our** is dropped.

Examples

humour, humorous
honour, honorary
vapour, vaporize
colour, coloration

Rule 2

When the spelling of the official name of a group, company, etc. differs from IDRC style, do **not** change the spelling:

Examples

Nutrition Center of the Philippines
Land Reform Programme

Rule 3

When quoting material exactly from another publication, keep the spelling contained in the original material, even if it differs from IDRC style. If you paraphrase, however, IDRC spelling should be used.

Example

The problem, as reported in the newsletter, was explained by the program director in these words: "Organisation of such a programme requires the co-ordination of many centres of learning."

But

The program director realized that the centres of learning would have to be coordinated to organize such a program.

Rule 4

The final letter is doubled when adding a suffix, if the word

1. ends in a consonant,
2. is preceded by a single vowel,
3. is accented on the last syllable (hence all one-syllable words also), and
4. the suffix begins with a vowel (for example, **-ing**, **-ed**, and **-er**).

Examples

bare becomes baring and bared (word ends in a vowel, not a consonant);
air becomes aired (preceded by a double vowel);
program becomes programed, programing (accent not on last syllable).

Rule 5

When the dictionary gives a choice of doubling a letter, apply rule 4

Examples

travel becomes traveler, not traveller (accent not on last syllable);
focus becomes focused, not focussed (accent not on last syllable);
level becomes leveled, not levelled (accent not on last syllable);
benefit becomes benefited, not benefitted (accent not on last syllable).

Words frequently misspelled

Most words listed here follow *Webster's*, with IDRC exceptions. Some the IDRC editors have found confusing over the years; others are words where an official IDRC choice has been made for alternatives listed in *Webster's*.

Abbreviations — **sing,** singular; **pl,** plural; **n,** noun; **vb,** verb; **adj,** adjective; **adv,** adverb

A

aboveground (adj)
acknowledgment
advertise
adviser
age-group, age-old
agenda (sing), agendas (pl)
airtight
all-important
all right (not alright)
analyze
anemia

B

benefited
black Africa — do not use, see Chapter 5 — "Language Bias"
bottle-feed (vb)
break down (vb), breakdown (n)
break even (vb), break-even (adj)
breast-feed (vb), breastfeeding (n), breast-fed (adj)
build up (vb), buildup, (n)
bureaus
by-product (n)

C

cast-off (adj), castoff (n), cast off (vb)
catalogue, cataloguing, catalogued
centreline
channeled, channeling
cheque, chequebook
clean up (vb), cleanup (n), clean-up (adj)
clear-cut (adj, vb)
coauthor
colour, colouring, colourable, colourless, but coloration (see spelling rule 2)
commonsense (adj), common sense (n)
controlled
co-op (n, use cooperative)
cooperate
counterbalance (n, vb)
co-worker
criterion (sing), criteria (pl)
cross-reference (n, vb)
cross section (n), cross-section (vb), cross-sectional (adj)

D

database (n, adj)
datum (sing), data (pl)
decision-maker, -making
de-emphasize (vb), de-emphasis (n)
defence (n, vb)
dependant (n), dependent (adj)
diarrhea
die, died, dying, dieback
discreet and discrete (see "Words frequently confused")
dissect
disseminate
draft (not draught)
dropout (n)
dry, dried, dries, but drying (vb)
dry, drier, driest (adj), but dryer (machine)
dryland (adj)

E

e.g., (note use of comma; if possible change to for example)
empty-handed
endeavour
end point
end product
enquire (use inquire)
exaggerate

F

fababean
family planning (n), family-planning (adj)
favour, favouring, favourable, favourless, favourite, favoured
feces
fetus (sing), fetuses (pl)
field test (n), field-test (vb)
fieldwork, fieldworkers
Filipina (female), Filipino (male person), Filipinos (plural), pilipino (language)
flavour, flavouring, flavourable, flavourless, but flavorous (see spelling rule 2)
flip chart
flowchart
focused, focusing
follow up (vb), follow-up (n, adj)
forgo and forego (see "Words frequently confused")
freewheeling
freeze-dry (vb)
freshwater (adj)
fuelwood (n)

fulfill
full-scale (adj)

G

gauge
germplasm (n, adj)
gillnet (vb), gill net (n)
goodwill
gram-negative, gram-positive, but Gram stain
grass roots (n), grass-roots (adj)
gray (not grey), but greyhound
groundwater
groundwork

H

handpump
handwheel
harass
hematology
hemorrhage
high-yield (adj)
honour, honourable, honourably, but honorary, honorarium (see spelling rule 2)
humour, but humorous (see spelling rule 2)

I

in-depth
infrared
in-migration
innovative
inpatient
inquire (not enquire)
inquiry (not enquiry)
in-service (adj)
Inuk (single person); Inuit (plural)

J

judge, judgment

K

kilometre, millimetre, etc.
knowledge, knowledgeable
know-how

L

landowner
less-developed (use developing)
licence (n, vb)
liquefy (not liquify)
litre (abbreviated as L)
long-standing
long-term
lump-sum (adj), lump sum (n)

M

mass-produce (vb), mass production (n)
metalworking
meter (measuring device)
metre (unit of measure)
microorganism
midafternoon
midday
modeled
mould

N

nationwide
neighbourhood
northeast

O

occur, occurred, occurring, occurrence
odour, but odorous (see spelling rule 2)
omit, omitted
onchocerciasis (sing), onchocerciases (pl)
one-half, one-third, one-quarter, etc.
ongoing
organization
outdated
out-migration
outmoded
outpatient
output
outturn

P

paddy (sing), paddies (pl) (not padi)
pamphlet
parallel, paralleled
pediatrics
percent
percentage
peri-urban
personnel
phenomenon (sing), phenomena (pl)
phosphorous (adj), phosphorus (n)
piecemeal
piecework

Pilipino (language) — Filipino or Filipina (person)
plow (not plough) (n, vb)
policymaker, policy-making
polyethylene (not polythene)
polyvinyl chloride (PVC)
postproduction
practice (n, vb)
prefer, preferred
preventive (preferred to preventative)
principle (n)
print out (vb), printout (n)
program, programing, programed, but programmatic, programmer
pursue

R

regardless (not irregardless)
riboflavin (not riboflavine)
rigour, but rigorous
riverbank
roadside

S

salable (not saleable)
salt water (n), saltwater (adj)
savanna (not savannah)
savour, savoured, savouring, savoury
secondhand (adj), second hand (n)
semi-arid
set up (vb), setup, (n)
side effects (n)
smallholder
so-called
socioeconomic
sociopolitical
somberly
Southeast Asia
soybean
spin-off (n)
spoonful, (sing), spoonsful (pl)
stay-at-home
straightforward
subsistence
sugarcane
sulfur (not sulphur)
supersede
surmise

T

textbook
Third World (note capitals)
threshold
tie, tied, tying (vb)
tiptoe
tire (not tyre)
toward (not towards)
totaled
transfer, transferred, transferring (vb)
transferability (n)
travel, traveler, traveled
trypanosomiasis (sing), trypanosomiases (pl)
tug-of-war
tyre (use tire)

U

Unesco (note: only initial capital)
UNICEF (note: all capitals)

V

vapour, but vaporous (see spelling rule 2)
vigour, but vigorous (see spelling rule 2)
vitamin (not vitamine)

W

wastewater
waterwheel
well-being
well known
word process (n, vb)
work force
worldwide
World War II

X,Y,Z

X ray (n), X-ray (vb, adj)

GEOGRAPHIC NAMES

Sources

Geographic features, regions, cities and towns

IDRC follows the spellings (including accents) of names of geographic features, regions, cities, and towns given in *Webster's New Geographical Dictionary* (1984).

Smaller places

The Times Index-Gazetteer of the World (1965) may have to be consulted for smaller places.

Places in Canada

Correct spellings for both French and English names of places in Canada can be obtained from the Canadian Permanent Committee on Geographical Names (992-3405).

Names of countries

Names of countries and adjectives of nationality should follow those given in UN Terminology Bulletin 342, with all current corrigenda from the UN.

Sequence of countries

Sequence lists of countries alphabetically unless there is a specific, clear reason for using some other sequence.

Variants from the sources

Myanmar for Burma
Yangon for Rangoon
Côte d'Ivoire for Ivory Coast
Dhaka for Dacca (Bangladesh)

ORGANIZATION NAMES

Official names

Use the name of an organization in full in its official language the first time the organization is mentioned and include the official acronym or abbreviation, for example, CIDA or FAO, in parentheses.

Thereafter, use the acronym or abbreviation only. If, as for IDRC, there are official abbreviations in more than one language, use the one that is in the language of the book.

If no official name of the organization exists in the language of the book, an unofficial translation may be included in the parentheses with the acronym.

IDRC Regional Offices acronyms

Acronyms for IDRC's regional offices (LARO, ASRO, etc.) must *not* be used in publications, they are for internal use only.

Translating organization names

Apply the following rules to the translation of institution names (including government departments, universities, NGOs, etc.).

1. Use the official name of the organization in the language of the text you are writing, if an official name exists.

   If it has an official acronym in its parent language but not in the language of the publication, use the official acronym.

   Examples

   International Potato Centre (CIP)

   Organisation des Nations Unies pour l'éducation, la science et la culture (Unesco)

2. If the organization does not have an official name in the language in which you are writing, give the official name followed, in parentheses, by the acronym, a comma, and the translated version of the name.

   Example

   Asociación Colombiana de Universidades (ACU, association of Colombian universities)

3. Use the acronym if an organization is referred to extensively. For organizations with **no official acronym**, it is preferable to make up an acronym in the language in which you are writing rather than in the language of the organization's official name. When "inventing" acronyms, ensure you don't assign an one that is already used by another organization.

4. In **translations of organization names**, use all lower case letters except for proper names and adjectives in English and Spanish, and capitalize the first word in French.

   Example

   Asociación Colombiana de Universidades (ACU, association of Colombian universities) or (ACU, Association colombienne d'universitiés)

5. Names of government departments (ministries, institutions, etc.) and universities should be given only in the language in which you are writing, Acronyms, if used, should follow this version.

TECHNICAL WORDS

Accuracy

Accuracy of scientific and technical terminology is extremely difficult to ensure because IDRC's texts cover such a wide range of topics. The *CBE Style Manual* introduces the subject and gives several references. Unfortunately, most are not available in IDRC's library and many are tailored to North American conditions and species.

Sources

The following are starting points (in Ottawa) from which you might get suitable published sources:

- IDRC's library, for general information;
- Fisheries Canada's library (995-9991);
- Agriculture Canada's library (995-7829); and
- the Canada Institute for Scientific and Technical Information (CISTI) (993-1600), particularly for science, technology, and medicine.

In addition, you may find help from:

- Canadian Medical Association; or
- Federal department libraries.

Plant, microorganism, and animal names

"Scientific" and vernacular names are discussed extensively in the *CBE Style Manual* (5th edition, chapter 13). The following is a brief summary. The rules differ slightly for different biological disciplines.

Botanical nomenclature

The rules are detailed in the *International Code of Botanical Nomenclature* (available on interlibrary loan from Agriculture Canada [580.4 R342]).

Kingdom — **Animalia**
Phylum — **Chordata**
Subphylum — **Vertebrata**
Class — **Aves**
Order — **Passeriformes**
Family — **Fringillidae**
Subfamily — **Carduelinae**
Genus — *Carduelis*
Species — *hornemanni*
Subspecies — *exilipes*

Use italic type (or underline) for scientific names of genera, species, and their subdivisions but use roman type for names of higher rank.

Capitalize the **scientific names** of **phylum**, **class**, **order**, **family**, or **genus** and their subdivisions, but not of a specific or subspecific taxon. Use of initial capitals for specific names derived from proper names is becoming obsolete

but is permitted by the International Code of Botanical Nomenclature (see the *CBE Style Manual*, chapter 13).

Example

Leucaena leucocephala.

Cultivars

Use roman type for names of cultivars (plants resulting from deliberate crossing or selection). The cultivar epithet must follow the genus and species names and is either in single quotes or preceded by "cv."

Example

Syringa vulgaris 'Mont Blanc' or *S. vulgaris* cv. Mont Blanc.

Generic names

If a generic name is followed by a specific name, the generic name must be spelled out the first time it is used in the text; later it may be abbreviated to its initial letter (always capitalized) except at the beginning of a sentence.

Example

Leucaena leucocephala at first mention and *L. leucocephala* thereafter

Two organisms with the same specific name must be distinguished by having the generic name in full: *Escherichia coli* and *Entamoeba coli* cannot both be called *E. coli* in the same paper. However, in **zoology and microbiology** but not in botany, more than one letter may be used to make the context clear, for example, *Sh.* for *Shigella.*

The specific name (for example, *leucocephala*) must be preceded by the generic name, or its abbreviation, except in diagnostic keys.

Common (vernacular) names are treated as follows:

- Set in roman (the exception for IDRC publications is a foreign language common name: it is italicized);
- Generally not capitalized, although names derived from a proper noun may retain the initial capital.

  Example

  English ivy (*Hedera helix*)
- Are not capitalized or italicized even when derived from the generic epithet.

  Example

  Camellia but camellia (note use of capital).

Similarly, in **microbiology**, the causal organism of a disease is capitalized and italicized, but the disease condition is neither capitalized nor italicized even when it is derived from the generic name.

Example

Cercosporidium henningsii induces cercosporidium brown leafspot in cassava.

Author's names

The surname of the author of a specific or subspecific name follows that name without intervening punctuation and is not italicized. For botanical names,

where the species or subspecies is now placed in a genus other than that in which it was originally described, the surname of the author of that name is in parentheses with the author of the new name following. In zoology, the new name is not added.

CONFUSED PAIRS

although never though. See While.

among, between

Divide something **between** two people or **among** three or more. Often, however, **between** is the correct word to express the relation of one thing to several others.

Between governs a relationship severally and individually (a treaty **between** three or more countries; a choice **between** the three most promising candidates).

Among expresses the relationship collectively and broadly
Example
He fell **among** thieves; it is **among** my dearest possessions).

anticipate, expect

anticipate — take action to forestall something
Example
He **anticipated** the drop in the stock market by selling his shares.
expect — regard as likely or assume as a future event
Example
I **expect** that we will arrive on time.

at present, presently

at present — now
presently — soon or in the near future

because See Since.

between See Among.

but See While.

compare with, compare to

compare with — when the details of similarity or dissimilarity are stated or implied
Example
She compared Mendel with Darwin (that is, pointed out or suggested details in which the two scientists were similar or dissimilar).

compare to — when a similarity is suggested or stated

Example

She compared Mendel to Washington (that is, one is the father of genetics, the other the father of his country; thus they are in the same class).

comprises, includes

When **comprises** is used, it should always fit the saying "The whole comprises the parts" but note that all the parts need not be included. **Includes** implies an incomplete list.

Example

The Atlantic provinces comprise Newfoundland and the Maritime provinces. The Maritime provinces include New Brunswick.

consider, consider as

Peru is **considered** a high growth area.
Considered as a politician or as a mother, she is exceeding all expectations.

due to

correctly used with a preceding subject **due to** means "attributable to."

Example

Her pneumonia is due to a virus (**not** Due to a virus, she contracted pneumonia).

even if, even though

See While.

expect

See Anticipate.

following

after is preferred when a temporal relationship is implied.

imply, infer

The speaker implies and the hearer infers.

Example

I **implied** that I was interested and he **inferred** that he had a potential customer.

period of time

period alone or time alone is generally sufficient

presently

See At present.

prior to

is the opposite of **posterior from** — use before and after

since, because

since should be used to denote time, not as a substitute for because

Example

Because snow fell yesterday, the roads have been slippery.
This sentence is correct, unless you wish to indicate "time" and not "why."

Examples

Since (the time that) snow began falling, the roads have been slippery.
Since (the time of) arriving in town, he has found a job.

that See Which.

various, varying **various** — of different kinds or aspects
varying — synonymous with changing or causing to change

Example

Various species of wild flowers were seen on the varying terrain.

which, that Use **that** for restrictive clauses and **which** for nonrestrictive clauses.

A restrictive clause cannot be omitted from a sentence without greatly changing the meaning. A nonrestrictive clause merely adds incidental facts that do not significantly limit the meaning of the principal clause.

Example

A satellite **that is inflated with gas** is very vulnerable. (Eliminating the bold-faced words, a restrictive clause, would change the meaning of the sentence.)

Echo 1, **which is inflated with gas,** circles the earth every hour and a half. (The bold-faced words, a nonrestrictive clause, may be omitted without affecting the meaning of the sentence.)

while vs whereas, although, but, even though, even if

While means "at the same time as" when used as a conjunction:

Example

While attending university, he made many friends.

While is used incorrectly most of the time for **whereas, although, but, even though,** and **even if,** sometimes resulting in ambiguity:

Example

While he arrived late, he did not miss the plane. (If "at the same time as" is substituted for **while** in this sentence, it then reads: At the same time as he arrived late, he did not miss the plane — which is not the correct meaning. The correct word to use in this instance is **although** — Although he arrived late, he did not miss the plane.)

ACCENTS

IDRC rule

Because the English language rarely uses accents, their use is a difficult subject. There is, however, one absolute:

Appropriate accents must be used on **names of people and institutions.** This applies to familiar accents, such as those found in French and Spanish, as well as to unfamiliar ones such as those found in transliterated languages.

Foreign words and phrases absorbed into English usually loose their accents but check the dictionary. For example, vis-à-vis is given with the accent.

For **place names**, follow the UN list (*Names of Countries and Adjectives of Nationality*) for **countries** and *Webster's New Geographical Dictionary* for other geographical entities.

CAPITALIZATION

IDRC style

Use the minimum number of capitals possible.

Sources

The following guide is adapted from the *CBE Style Manual* (5th edition). The subject is covered extensively in the *Chicago Manual of Style*, *Hart's Rules* (pages 8–11), and *The Canadian Style* (pages 64–82).

Use an initial capital letter

Proper noun

Some words derived from proper nouns have through usage become part of the common language and are no longer capitalized.

Example

petri dish, pasteurize, and italicize. (If in doubt, check the dictionary.)

Trade names

Rephrase text to remove trade names (for example, petroleum jelly for Vaseline) but if a trade name must be used, ensure that capitalization is correct.

Example

We use WordPerfect (two capitals and no space).

In text intended for publication, include the disclaimer "Mention of a proprietary name does not constitute endorsement of the product and is given only for information."

Titles of books and articles

Capitalize the first word and all proper nouns and adjectives in the **titles of books and articles** in the text, but only the first word in the reference list.

Professional, civil, military, or religious title

Capitalize a **professional, civil, military, or religious title** that immediately precedes a personal name.

Example

"Prime Minister Campbell said ..." but "The prime minister said ...."

Private or government organization

Capitalize the **official name of a private or government organization** or institution.

Example

Carleton University or the City of Ottawa.

Geographic names

A generic **geographic name** that is part of a proper name must be capitalized.

Example Ottawa River.

Where grouping has occurred, the geographic term is not capitalized.

Example

The Ottawa and Gatineau rivers.

Historical epoch, geological age or stratum, zoogeographic zone

Capitalize the name of a **formal historical epoch**, **geological age** or **stratum**, **zoogeographic zone**, or other term used for the convenience of classification (see *CBE Style Manual*, page 227).

Phylum, class, order, family, or genus

See "Plant, organism, and animal names," page 8.

Common names of birds and insects

The complete vernacular or common name of a **species of bird** is capitalized in accordance with the checklist of the American Ornithologists' Union.

The **common name of an insect** is *only* capitalized when in accordance with the list approved by the Entomological Society of America (see *CBE Style Manual*, chapter 13).

Gene, chromosome, blood-group, and other symbols

Many **gene**, **chromosome**, **blood-group**, and other symbols are capitalized (see appropriate sections in *CBE Style Manual*, chapter 13).

Note

Where a word refers to a specific person or institution, it retains its capital letter even in later references.

Example

The President of IDRC, Mr Bezanson, is traveling in Asia. The President will return to the Centre in early June.

PREFIXES

anti-, hyper-, hypo-, inter-, macro-, micro-, multi-, non-, over-, poly-, pre-, pseudo-, sub-, un-

solid with the base word except when the base word begins with a capital letter or when the word formed (as **un-ionized**) would otherwise be confused with another word **(unionized).**

bi-, semi-, uni- solid with the base word **(biennial, semiannual, unicellular)** except when the base word begins with an "i" or a capital letter. **Semi-arid** is the exception.

co- solid with the base word **(cooperative)** except when the base word begins with a capital letter or in the following words: **co-worker, co-op, co-opt, co-optate, co-optation, co-optative, co-optive.**

half-, mid- check the dictionary for the specific word.

hyper- See Anti-.

hypo- See Anti-.

inter- See Anti-.

intra-, ultra- solid with the base word except when the base word begins with an a (intracontinental, ultra-atomic)

macro- See Anti-.

micro- See Anti-.

mid- See Half-.

multi- See Anti-.

non- See Anti-.

over-, under- solid with the base word, except when the base word begins with a capital.

poly- See Anti-.

post- solid with the base word except when the base word begins with a t or a capital letter or is an adverb.

Examples

post-traumatic, post-Pleistocene, a **postmortem (noun),** a **postmortem** examination **(adj), but** an examination was given **post-mortem;** the results were studied **post-harvest.**

pre-	See Anti-.
pseudo-	See Anti-.
quasi-	use two words when quasi is an adjective (for example, quasi government) and hyphenated in a compound adjective (for example, quasi-governmental agency).
re-	solid with the base word except (1) when the word formed (as **re-creation**) would otherwise be confused with another word **(recreation);** (2) when the word **(as re-recover)** has a second element beginning with **re-;** or (3) when the second element begins with a capital letter.
self-	requires a hyphen before the base word **(self-adjusting, self-restraint)**
semi-	See Bi-.
sub-	See Anti-.
ultra-	See Intra-.
un-	See Anti-.
under-	See Over-.
uni-	See Bi-.

SUFFIXES

-fold	solid with base word except for numbers over nine; for example, threefold, ninefold **but** 10-fold, 25-fold, etc.
-like	check the dictionary for the specific word
-self	solid with base word **(itself, yourself)**

COMPOUND WORDS

Hyphenation in English is a guide to the reader to make the writer's meaning clear. For many of IDRC's readers, English is not their first language so hyphenation is even more important than usual.

IDRC's style

- Suffixes and prefixes, see previous sections.
- Nouns, check the dictionary or "Words frequently misspelled."

- Adjectives from compound nouns are generally written with hyphens whether the noun form is written as two separate words or with a hyphen.
  Example
  "The conflict was mediated by a third party" or "Third-party mediation was used in the conflict."
- Adverbs in -ly are *never* hyphenated to an adjective.
  Example
  "This is clearly written text."

Paired compounds

If you find yourself using similar pairs one with and one without a hyphen, be consistent, even if the dictionaries or the IDRC choices disagree.

Example

The sentence "The flowchart was displayed on a flip chart" (words follow IDRC style) should be changed to be consistent.

With compound words that are normally written as one word, if a pair with the same root, for example, superscript and subscript, appear together with only one in full, IDRC style is to write the second as one word unhyphenated.

Example

Super- and subscripts must be checked carefully.

Rules on compounds

The section in *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* — "The Big Webster's" (pages 28a–29a) on compounding is good, see also the *Chicago Manual of Style* (table 6.1).

For modifiers

Hyphenate modifiers that express a single thought when they precede a noun.

Example

Out-of-order machine or *state-of-the-art* component.

When the modifying words *follow* the noun, they are *not* hyphenated.

Example

"Our writing textbooks are hopelessly out of date."

For nouns and noun adjuncts

Decide which version (two words, hyphenated, or one word) will best help the reader understand exactly what you mean to say.

Example

In the phrase "an intense blue-flame of a man," a hyphen is used. This shows the readers that the words are a single entity, not an adjective (blue) modifying a noun (flame).

If there is no IDRC choice (see "Words frequently misspelled"), follow the lead of experienced writers who use the words.

Example

laptop computers, not lap top computers.

WRITING PROBLEMS

Constructions to avoid

There is/are

Constructions of the type "There is/are etc." "There are many things that can be said" can be shortened to "Many things can be said."

Abstract nouns

Abstract nouns (often ending in -tion) are "verbs in hiding," take them out and you will shorten up the text and make it easier to read. Also, the agent will often become apparent ("Reg" in the example).

Example

"The suggestion was made that consideration be given to a style manual" (12 words) can be shortened to "Reg suggested that a style manual be considered" (8 words).

And/or

It is very rare for both "and" and "or" to be necessary. Use one or the other, or if absolutely necessary use the form "a or b, or both, ..."

Germanic expression

Try to rephrase Germanic expressions, (that is, long lists on nouns and adjectives in which it is not clear what is modifying which.

Example

"Large African cattle populations" could be rewritten (wrongly) as "populations of large African cattle."

"**Long subjects**" are often Germanic expressions. This is one of the few times that "There is, etc" works.

Approximately

"Approximately" gives the impression of "scientific exactness" while actually introducing inexactness. Roughly, about, etc. are better (also shorter).

Whether or not

"Or not" is often unnecessary and, if it is necessary, it is better moved away from "whether."

Royal/Editorial "we"

Change to the royal we to "I" or rephrase the sentence when there is only one author.

Note the following

"At a 0.01 level of probability" can generally be written as ($P < 0.01$).

"Likely" should generally be followed by "to" or "that." It is only North American usage that makes it equivalent to possibly or probably (which should be used).

"It is necessary to" can be better expressed as "must."

Example

"It is necessary to collect information" is better worded as "Information must be collected."

Utilize can be changed to "use" — an Anglo-Saxon word rather than a Romance.

Viable has to do with life, therefore such things as an economic plan should not be referred to as viable but as feasible.

It is incorrect to use **"But"** as the first word of a sentence. **"However"** is correct; it is better buried into the sentence, however.

TWO — SERIAL COMMA AND OTHER DEVICES

This chapter of the style manual provides examples of the use of punctuation in IDRC publications.

Gray areas

The section incorporates notes on punctuation marks that are often misused or are poorly understood, but it focuses on the gray areas in punctuation — the places where authorities on grammar accept more than one approach.

IDRC rules

For consistency, IDRC has adopted a "rule" for each of the points where there is choice in use of punctuation — particularly where British and American practice differs. On the whole, IDRC style is closer to the British.

PERIOD

Primary use

A period, also known as a full stop, indicates the **end of a complete thought** (a declaration or command) and, at the end of one or more letters, an **abbreviated word**.

If you do not have to use a **full stop at the end** of every complete thought; you must supply an alternative that fulfills the function. This is an absolute — no gray areas here.

In contrast, the use of **full stops in abbreviations** depends on the style of the publication for which a text is being prepared (see the section on abbreviations, page 75 in Chapter 7 — "Acronyms and Addresses." IDRC's style is to minimize periods in abbreviations.

ELLIPSIS

Definition — An ellipsis is a series of three dots (...).

Use an ellipsis

To indicate **omission** of one or more words in a piece of text that has been quoted from another communication.

Ellipsis with punctuation

If the words that have been omitted were originally followed by a punctuation mark other than a dash, include the mark before continuing or closing the quotation.

If the punctuation mark followed the last word quoted directly, then there is no space before the punctuation mark and the ellipsis follows it.

If the missing words were between the last word and the punctuation mark, a space follows the last word, then the ellipsis, then the punctuation mark.

Example

"However, ... a space follows the last word ...."

Do not use ellipsis marks

At the beginning of a quotation, you can show the omission of words by some other means, such as using a lower-case letter to begin the quoted material.

Example

In Mac's words, the sales representative didn't "know his ears from an em dash."

In this example, the content of the sentence (as well as the use of the lower-case "k") lets the reader know that the speaker said more than was actually quoted.

CENTRED DOT

Definition — The centred dot is also known as a **raised period.** It is used primarily in chemistry, genetics, and mathematics.

Use a centred dot

To indicate **multiplication** if space does not permit use of the multiplication sign or if closed up symbols are unsatisfactory or confusing.

Example

$a \cdot b(c + 1)$ instead of $a \times b(c + 1)$.

To indicate the ratio of **water used in hydration** of a salt.

Example

$CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$.

To express **genetic relationships.**

Example

AA·AB·BB.

COMMA

Purpose of comma

The comma helps to group words, phrases, and clauses for clarity. Used correctly, it increases the reader's speed in understanding the relationships that the author intends to establish between words.

Use a comma

After an **introductory phrase** or clause.

Example

In Singapore, the hawker's stalls are the best bet for a delicious meal. When you visit the city-state, you must try them.

After every item in a **series of more than two items**.

Example

You can buy fresh juice prepared while you wait from watermelon, pineapple, or star fruit.

The **exception** to this rule is a series in which other commas are needed for clarity: the items are then separated by semicolons.

Example

Some tropical fruits you will find in the market include durien, which is known as the king of fruits; the rambutan, which is pink and hairy, about the size of a table tennis ball; and the mangosteen, which is red and smooth, with distinct compartments of edible flesh.

Between two complete thoughts joined by "and," "or," "but," or "nor" (the **linking or coordinating conjunctions**).

Example

The IDRC style manual may take years to be produced, but the work in compiling it will be repaid many times in the production of consistent publications.

To set apart a **nonessential (nondefining) clause or phrase** within a sentence.

Example

Contact the Singapore Tourist Promotion Board, which has several locations throughout the city, for free publications on the shopping and sites.

To set off **adverbs or phrases** that break the continuity of thought.

Example

He said, however, that he could not attend. Nevertheless, he wanted to go.

To separate **coordinate adjectives** modifying the same noun. (If you can substitute "and" for the comma, the adjectives are coordinate and you need a comma.)

Example

An ominous, eerie, luminous cloud settled over the cemetery.

Do not use a comma

To separate the **subject from the verb** (or predicate), unless there are more than two verbs in a series.

Example

I would be grateful if you could change the text of the editorial, provide examples of some work on the subject, and say that mimosine still remains a problem in chicken feed.

Before or after a **phrase or clause that is essential** to the meaning of the sentence.

Example

The species *Phenacoccus manihoti* was first reported in Africa in the early 1970s.

Within **dates**.

Example

16 January 1983: but Friday, March 13, 1987.

COLON

Use a colon

To introduce a **quotation** or a **list**.

To show that whatever follows (a complete thought, a phrase, or word) is an **explanation or expansion** of what has already been said.

To separate the elements of a **mathematical ratio**.

Example

The student-teacher ratio was 52 : 1. Note the spaces between the numbers and the colon (in typeset matter, a half space is used).

Note: To indicate a ratio; in **numerical ratios**, use a colon; to show this **relationship between two words**, use an en dash.

Example

The teacher-student ratio was 1 : 52.

Do not use a colon if the sentence is continuous without it or between a verb or preposition and its direct object.

SEMICOLON

Use a semicolon

To separate **two or more complete thoughts** (each thought can stand alone) that are not joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction.

Used in this way, a **semicolon can be replaced by a full stop** but provides a tool for the author to show that the complete thoughts are linked in content.

Example

I came; I saw; I conquered.

To separate a **series of items that contain internal punctuation**; a comma does not provide the reader with a clear enough distinction between the beginning and end of each item (see under use of comma).

EXCLAMATION MARK

The **exclamation point** is rare in all publications and is particularly rare in scientific publications like those of IDRC.

Although the scientists, researchers, etc. may have exciting results, they seldom have occasion to exclaim about them!

In mathematics

The exclamation point is used sometimes in **mathematics** where it is called **shriek**.

QUESTION MARK

Use a question mark

After all questions, even if they are in declarative form.

Example

Would you please get the lead out in the production of a style manual?

After each **indirect question** in a series of indirect questions.

Example

The questions I needed answered were: Who would write the style manual? Who would edit it? Who would produce it? And who would use it?

Do not use a question mark

After a single indirect question.

Example

The question I needed answered was who would write the style manual.

QUOTATION MARKS

Single (') and double (") quotes

Like parentheses, **quotation marks** need less explanation about how to use them than about how to use other punctuation with them.

There are two accepted (but mutually exclusive) rules of thumb for the use of punctuation with quotations marks: *Fowler's Modern English Usage* refers to them as the **logical** and the **conventional rules**.

The two rules are equally correct, although people using the logical style tend to consider the conventional placement of punctuation to be incorrect.

"The logical punctuates according to sense" and puts stops outside the quotation marks except when they are actually part of the quote.

"The conventional prefers to put stops within..., if it can be done without ambiguity, on the ground that this has a more pleasing appearance."

IDRC rule

IDRC uses the conventional style, with **all stops except the semicolon and colon** being included within the quotation marks.

Examples

The durien is "the king of fruits," but many people say one must develop a taste for it. The durien is "the king of fruits"; many people have developed a taste for it. The durien is "the king of fruits": its advocates in Southeast Asia number in the millions.

Relationship to punctuation

All punctuation marks except : and ; are inside the quotation marks.

Double quotes

Enclose **quoted material** that is not longer than four typed lines, about 40 words with double quotation marks. For **longer quotations**, indent both margins enough to indicate clearly that the section of text differs from earlier and subsequent text and do not use quotation marks.

Enclose the **title of an article, poem,** or **chapter of a book** in the text with quotation marks (but do not do this in the reference list); also **television shows** and **song titles** are enclosed in quotation marks.

Set off a **coined term, new technical word,** or an old term used in an **unusual context** with double quotation marks; also, **words or letters that would be ambiguous** without quotation marks.

Example

Please place an "x" by the answer you believe is correct.

To set off **quoted material within larger quotations** that are set of by being set on a shorter line length.

Single quotes

To enclose **quoted material within larger quotations** set off by double quotes.

To set off the **names of plant cultivars** (note: cv. may also be used).

APOSTROPHE

The apostrophe shows:

- **omission of letters** in a word or phrase (for example, the contraction o'er) and
- **possession** (replacing the preposition "of" used with a noun or any word acting as a noun).

Note: in scientific and technical publications, a possessive apostrophe is best avoided.

Possessives

Use an apostrophe to indicate possesion:

- Before adding an "s" to words that do not end in "s."

  Examples

  An entire year's work was wasted; and
  His brother-in-law's exhibit was a success.

- After the "s" in words that end in "s" when they are plural.

  Examples

  The farmers' suspicion about the equipment disintegrated.

- After the "s" to form singular possessives of words ending in "s" in the singular.

  Example

  Jones' cow.

Do not use an apostrophe

Before adding an "s" to show the **plurals of abbreviations**, single letters, or a year.

Examples

1980s, IARCs (international agricultural research centre).

SOLIDUS

Names

Slash, solidus, oblique, slant line, virgule, and **stroke.**

Use a solidus

An indicator of the **mathematical operation of division** and, as an extension of this, as a substitute for the word "**per.**" (See also Chapter 3 — "One to Nine and Beyond.")

To replace the word "**per**" in expressions that incorporate a numeral.

Example

6 kg/cm^2; 14 t/ha.

In expressions in which **more than one solidus** would be required, reword the text so that the correct mathematical representation is provided.

Example

"Annual yields of 14 t/ha" or "Yields of 14 t/ha per year" **not** "Yields of 14 t/ha/a."

To indicate that one number is **divided** by another.

Example

176/14 is the same as 176 divided by 14.

To indicate a **noncalendar year**. An exception to this is the IDRC Annual Report where the style 1992–1993 is used to parallel the French style.

Example

Financial year 1984/85.

Do not use a solidus

To indicate a ratio; in **numerical ratios**, use a colon; to show this **relationship between two words**, use an en dash.

Example

The teacher–student ratio was 1 : 52.

PARENTHESES AND BRACKETS

Parentheses

A major problem with parentheses (that is "**round brackets**") is not so much how to use them but how to use other punctuation with them.

Unless the information enclosed in parentheses is a **complete sentence** (with a capital first letter and a full stop before the closing parenthesis), there should never be a mark of punctuation before the opening parenthesis.

Whatever mark of punctuation is required by the text preceding the parenthetical expression is placed after the closing parenthesis.

Use parentheses

To enclose **comments or explanations** that are structurally independent of the sentence (parentheses show greater independence of the expression than is possible with commas or dashes).

To enclose the **author and year** of publication of references cited in the text.

Example

(Smith 1969; Croome et al. 1975; Drysdale and Kealey 1977).

To enclose **labels for enumerations**. However, avoid this format if possible by using words: ... three steps: first, fine the offender; ... etc.

Example

If a person is caught bringing a durien into a hotel, the authorities take three steps: (1) fine the offender; (2) confiscate the fruit; and (3) sneak away to devour the flavorful, but offensive-smelling, item.

To enclose **identification or directions** for the reader.

Example

The results (Table 2) clearly showed that the typical editor at IDRC in 1983 was female, under age 35, and short.

To **group mathematical** expressions.

Example

$(a + b)(x^2 - y)$.

Do not use parentheses

Inside a parenthetical expression, use an em dash (typed as space, two hyphens, space) or square brackets.

In mathematics, use {[(as an expression becomes more complex.

Example

$3(a + b)$ but $3[a + (b/2)]$ and $3\{[a + b]/[c + (2/d)]\}$.

Brackets

Brackets — [ ] — are used sparingly in IDRC publications.

Use brackets

To indicate **parenthetical information** within a parenthetical expression.

Example

During a prolonged visit to Australia, Glueck and an assistant (James Green, who was later to make his own study of a flightless bird [the kiwi] in New Zealand) spent ... (*Chicago*, page 125 section 5.100).

To indicate an **editorial comment** within a quotation.

To display the **second-language version** of a title in a reference list.

To number **displayed equations**.

Braces

Braces — { } — are used mainly in **mathematics** to show a third level of concentration after (and [. The cluster is always {[(/)]}.

Example

$\{5.3[5(a + b) + d][(x^2 - y)]^2\}/(3z - 2y)$.

HYPHENS AND DASHES

Hyphen, en dash, and em dash

In publications, there are three lengths of dashes — the **hyphen (-)**, the **en dash (-)**, and the **em dash (—)** — each of which has a different function and a different length. (There is also the minus sign which is between the hyphen and the en dash in length.)

In straight typing, the hyphen fills all three roles but with electronic word processing, you can create three different characters (see WordPerfect codes, page 83).

Definitions

In any type face, an **em dash** is as long as the type is high — the width of the letter "M".

An **en dash** is half the length of an em dash; the **hyphen** is smaller yet.

Typing hyphen and dashes

In a **typed manuscript**, the hyphen is used for both its own functions and that of the minus sign. An em dash should be typed as a space, two hyphens, and a second space and an en dash as two hyphens without spaces.

Use a hyphen

To indicate a **word break** at the end of a line. Do not do this in manuscripts that will be typeset.

To indicate a word with an **internal hyphen**, such as decision-maker (use *Webster's Dictionary* to ensure that the hyphen is needed). See also the section on compound words in the previous chapter (page 16).

To separate the numerator from the denominator in **fractions** of numbers smaller than 10.

Examples

One-third, two-thirds, and three-quarters.

To indicate that two or more words (unless the first is an "-ly" form of an adverb) are being used as a single term to describe or modify another word, (that is, in a **compound adjective.**

Examples

Developing-country scientists; 15-fathom grounds; and less-marketable species; but closely spaced plants.

To indicate minus. A **minus sign** as an operation is spaced but is unspaced to indicate a negative value.

Examples

(x - y) but -6°C.

Use an en dash

To indicate a **range**.

Example

10–20 kg.

To indicate an **equal relationship** between two words.

Examples

Cost–benefit analysis; protein–calorie malnutrition; north–south dialogue; teacher–student ratio.

An en dash is unspaced when it is shows a range or an equal relationship between two words (10–20 kg or teacher–student). However, if one half consists of more than one word or element, then a **spaced en dash** should be used.

Examples

12 June – 17 July, water – acetic acid mixture, water – methanol – acetic acid (but water–methanol–benzene).

Do not use an en dash

To indicate a range if you use the words "from" or "between".

Examples

From 1969 to 1975 or Between 1969 and 1975 (but During 1969–1975).

Where a compound adjective is involved, avoid the use of a en dash for a range.

Example

Use "10-mg to 20-mg doses" or "10- to 20-mg doses" rather than "10–20-mg doses."

Use an em dash

To indicate an **abrupt change** in thought.

Example

I want to go — you could come along — but I'm not sure when.

To indicate **parenthetical information**, as a substitute for parentheses.

Examples

The minced white flesh is mixed with salt, starch, condiments, and spices — onion, ginger, garlic, nutmeg, allspice, curry powder, etc.

IDRC style with em dash

IDRC style is to use a space before and after an em dash.

THREE — ONE TO NINE AND BEYOND

NUMBERS

For **technical and scientific publications** — Apply the following rules, but in more **popular publications** or writing, you may take a less rigid approach.

General rule

Use words for numbers one through nine and numerals for larger numbers.

Examples

nine rabbits; two dogs; 14 parts; 29 trees.

Exceptions

A numeral is always used:

- With a **standard unit of measure** or its abbreviation.

  Examples

  3 hours; 1 g; 18 mm; 300 m^2; 5%; 7 L,

- For a **date**, an **expression of time** (that is, hours, days, months, years, etc.), a **page number**, a **percentage**, or a **decimal quantity**, or a **numerical designation**.

  Examples

  7 January 1971; the time is 0815 hours; page 179; 27%; 37.6 g; a magnification of 50.

- In a **series** containing some numbers of 10 or more, and some less than 10, use numerals for all.

  Example

  The 7 apple trees, 9 peach trees, and 20 plum trees were given six applications of dust.

Ordinal numbers

Treat ordinals as you would cardinal numbers.

Examples

third, ninth, 10th, 33rd, 54th

Numbers above 999

Typeset

Write numbers above 999 with spaces, that is, 1 000, both in text and tabular material.

Typewritten

Use a comma; however, with wordprocessing, you can choose whichever you are more comfortable with.

Exceptions are years, where no comma or space is used.

Example

"In 1992, IDRC was designated as an Agenda 21 organization."

Very large numbers

Substitute a word or a power of 10 for part of the number or add an appropriate prefix to a basic unit of measurement.

Examples

$6 million (not $6 000 000 or 6 000 000 dollars) — $6 x 10^6 would be the correct form in scientific publications; 23 mg (not 0.000 023 g)

Miscellaneous points on numbers

Do not begin a sentence with a numeral; either spell out the numeral, reword the sentence, or end the preceding sentence with a semicolon.

Fractions

Hyphenate fractions when written out.

Example

One-third, four-fifths, etc.

Numbers with "-fold"

Numbers with -fold are solid with the base word except over nine.

Example

threefold, ninefold but 10-fold, 25-fold, etc.

Adjectival units

Use hyphens in adjectives that contain numbers.

Example

a 16-ha field; a 30-page book.

Abbreviations of units

Never abbreviate units of measure (see next section) without numbers unless the abbreviations are in parentheses.

Example

"The area of the field was measured in ha" is wrong. "The children's weights were recorded (in kg)" is permissible.

Solidus (/)

Use the solidus (slash) for **per** when reporting numbers in nonscientific text.

Example

"IDRC staff work 37.5 hours/week"

Exceptions

1 If several words come between the first and second parts of the expression.

Example

"The field was seeded at 3 t/ha" but "The farmer used 3 t of seed per hectare."

If the "word" is an abbreviation, the solidus may still be used.

Example
"Fertilizer at 3 t of nitrogen per hectare" should be written as "... 3 t N/ha."

2 **Solidus with %** — Do not use the solidus after %.
Example
3.5% per year

3 **Solidus twice with one number** — Do not use the solidus if it would occur twice with one number.
Example
3.5 kg/person per year.

UNITS

Use **SI units** (Système International d'Unités) for measurements. If the book has many measurements in British units, give conversion factors to SI units so that the readers can make the conversions if they feel it is necessary.

Conversions

See Table 1 for some basic conversion values.

Be cautious of words based on a British unit of measure, for example, **acreage** and **poundage**.
Example
"The acreage of a farm is 24 ha" sounds odd, it is better to say "the area of the farm is 24 ha" or "the farm covers 24 ha."

Be cautious in converting materials that are **standard sizes**.
Example
A 3/16-inch bolt is not the same as a 4.7625-mm bolt — in the metric-sized bolts, there are probably 4.5- and 5-mm bolts but these would not necessarily fit in place of a 3/16-inch one.

Rounding numbers

When converting one type of unit to another in nontechnical work, round the converted value to within 5% of the original and use the word "about" or some other indication that the value is approximate.
Example
5 lb or about 2.3 kg.

Be reasonable in the number of **significant figures** that you give, it should be the same as in the original. See the *Canadian Metric Practice Guide* (page 43) for rules on rounding numbers.
Example
An area of 1 000 acres is better reported as 404.7 ha (or maybe 405 or 400 ha depending on the context) not 404.686 ha.

Table 1. Key conversions.

Length			
inch	= 2.540 cm	millimetre	= 0.039 inch
foot	= 0.3048 m	centimetre	= 0.394 inch
yard	= 0.914 m	metre	= 3.281 feet
mile	= 1.609 km	kilometre	= 0.621 mile
Area			
square inch	= 645.16 mm^2	cm^2	= 0.155 square inch
square foot	= 929.0 cm^2	m^2	= 1.196 square yard
square yard	= 0.836 m^2		
square mile	= 2.590 km^2	km^2	= 0.386 square mile
acre	= 0.405 ha	hectare	= 2.471 acre
Volume (dry)			
cubic inch	= 16.387 cm^3	cm^3	= 0.061 cubic inch
cubic foot	= 0.028 m^3	m^3	= 35.315 cubic feet
cubic yard	= 0.765 m^3	m^3	= 1.308 cubic yard
bushel	= 36.369 L	hectolitre	= 2.750 bu
Volume (liquid)			
fluid ounce (Imp)	= 28.413 mL	mL	= 0.035 fl.oz
pint (Imp)	= 0.568 L	litre (L)	= 35.196 fl.oz
gallon (Imp)	= 4.546 L	litre	= 0.220 gal
Mass			
ounce	= 28.350 g	gram	= 0.035 oz avdp
pound	= 0.454 kg	kilogram	= 2.205 lb avdp
ton (2000 lb)	= 0.907 t	tonne (t)	= 1.102 ton
Proportion			
1 gallon/acre	= 11.233 L/ha	1 L/ha	= 0.089 gal/acre
1 pound/acre	= 1.121 kg/ha	1 kg/ha	= 0.892 lb/acre
1 pound/square inch (psi)	= 0.070 kg/cm^2	1 kg/cm^2	= 14.223 lb/square inch
1 pound/square inch (psi)	= 6.895 kPa	1 kilopascal	= 0.145 lb/square inch
1 bushel/acre	= 0.899 hL/ha	1 hL/ha	= 1.113 bu/acre
Energy			
1 British thermal unit	= 1.055 kJ	1 kilojoule	= 0.948 Btu
1 kilowatt-hour	= 3.600 MJ	1 megajoule	= 0.278 kW • h

Temperature

t degrees Farenheit = 5(t - 32)/9 degrees C

t degrees Celsius = (9t/5) + 32 degrees F

SI (Système International d'Unités)

The degree to which the SI system is used terms of abbreviations depends on the audience of the publication.

"Hard" science

Use SI abbreviations (including negative integers where appropriate).

Example

Concentration of 5 μL L^{-1} not 5 μL/L.

More general publications and "soft" science

Where appropriate, use SI abbreviations and no abbreviations if it is felt that the abbreviations would not be understood (for example, use year not a — for annum).

Non-SI abbreviations

Do not use nonstandard abbreviations

Example

Use year not yr.

Canadian Metric Practice Guide

Table 2 is adapted from the *Canadian Metric Practice Guide* (CAN3-Z234.1-89) and shows both abbreviations and derivations of permissible units as well as names and symbols. When in doubt, consult the full guide.

Table 2. SI base units, derived units, and permitted units.

Quantity	Name	Symbol	Definition[a]
length	metre	m	
mass	kilogram	kg	
time	second	s	
electric current	ampere	A	
thermodynamic temperature	kelvin	K	
Celsius temperature[b]	degree Celsius	°C	1 K = 1°C
amount of substance	mole	mol	
luminous intensity	candela	cd	
time	minute	min	1 min = 60 s
	hour	h	1 h = 3 600 s
	day	d	1 d = 86 000 s
	year	a	
plane angle	degree	°	1° = (π/180) rad
	minute	'	
	second	"	
	revolution	r	1 r = 2π rad
area	hectare	ha	1 ha = 1 hm^2 = 10 000 m^2

electric potential, potential difference, electromotive force	volt	V	$m^2.kg.s^{-3}.A^{-1}$
volume	litre[c]	L	1 L = 1 dm^3
mass	metric tonne	t	1 t = 1 000 kg = 1 Mg
frequency[d]	hertz	Hz	s^{-1}
energy, work, quantity of heat	joule	J	$m^2 \cdot kg \cdot s^{-2}$

[a] The formulae for derived units are not necessarily unique. For example, the volt may be defined as one joule per coulomb.

[b] The Celsius temperature scale (not Centigrade) is the commonly used scale, except for certain scientific and technological purposes where the thermodynamic temperature scale is prefered. Use the upper case C for Celsius.

[c] Note that L is the Canadian accepted symbol for litre, not l.

[d] The SI unit of frequency, the hertz, is one per second. The reciprocal of the frequency is the period.

Table 3. SI prefixes.

Multiplying factor		Prefix	Symbol	
1 000 000 000 000	= 10^{12}	tera	T	trillion[a]
1 000 000 000	= 10^9	giga	G	billion[a]
1 000 000	= 10^6	mega	M	million[a]
1 000	= 10^3	kilo	k	
100	= 10^2	hecto	h	
10	= 10^1	deca	da	
1	= 10^0	—	—	
0.1	= 10^{-1}	deci	d	
0.01	= 10^{-2}	centi	c	
0.001	= 10^{-3}	milli	m	
0.000 001	= 10^{-6}	micro	μ	

[a] For IDRC publications, use the million, billion, and trillion shown here. Note that British usage is 10^6 = million; 10^{12} = billion; 10^{18} = trillion.

TEMPERATURE

If you must report temperatures in IDRC publications, always use the Celsius temperature scale (previously called Centigrade). Note the use of upper case C for Celsius, and that there is no space before or after the degree symbol.

Example

"On 27 January 1993, the overnight low temperature in Ottawa was -18°C."

If temperatures must be converted, use the formula:
a temperature of t °F = 5(t - 32)/9 °C

TIME

Years

Year ranges — Do not use an apostrophe.
Example
In the 1960s.

Noncalendar years are shown by a solidus (/) not an en dash.
Example
The **financial year** 1979/80.

Dates

Use day month year: because the number-only system can lead to confusion, spell out the month.
Example
16 September 1981.

Time of day

Use 24-hour system.
Example
1630 hours.
However, if ante and post meridiem must be used, they should be **AM** and **PM** (note: no periods).

MATHEMATICS

Mathematics rarely appear in IDRC publications, if you have to deal with them, either consult the IDRC editor or see *Mathematics in Type*, by the William Byrd Press (1954); *Setting Mathematics*, by Arthur Phillips (1956); *A Manual for Authors of Mathematical Papers*, by the American Mathematical Society (1962); or the *Chicago Manual of Style* (chapter 13, pp. 295–314).

STATISTICS

Certain symbols in statistics are shown in italics, and others in roman type (from the *CBE Style Manual*).

Table 4. Statistical symbols.

Population parameters	Sample statistics	Explanation
	n, N	Total number of individuals or variates
μ (lc mu)		Mean of the population
	x	Arithmetic mean of the sample
σ (lc sigma)		Standard deviation of the population
	s, SD	Standard deviation of the sample
σ^2		Variance of the population
	s^2	Sample variance
	s_x, SE	Standard error of mean of sample
	CV	Coefficient of variation
	t	Statistical datum derived in Student's t test
	χ^2	Statistical datum derived in the chi-square test
	p, P	Probability of wrongfully rejecting the null hypothesis (level of significance)
	β	Regression coefficient of population
	r	Coefficient of correlation, sample
	R	Coefficient of multiple correlation
	F	Variance ratio
	LSD	Least significant difference

CURRENCIES

When reporting currencies, use the *Codes for Country Names and Currencies* of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO standards 3166 and 4217; see following pages).

ISO currency codes follow the currency values and are preceded by a space.

Example

100 CAD

In less formal writing, you may use the currency symbol with the **ISO country code** before the currency value with no space.

Example

CA$100

A **dollar value** referred to in the text is assumed to be Canadian unless otherwise stated.

Give **conversion rate to US dollars**

1 At first mention of a foreign currency in text:

Example

"The wholesale price index of wheat rose from an average of 7 THB/kg in 1962 to an average of 18 THB/kg in 1978 (in 1985, 20 Thailand baht [THB] = 1 United States dollar [USD])."

2 In each table in which currencies are used, even if the exchange rate has already been given in the text, give the exchange rate as a footnote.

To get current values for exchange rates, phone the Royal Bank (Main Branch) Foreign Exchange Department (564-3151). They will give the foreign currency in terms of US dollars but you must ask specifically "how many ? currency equals 1 USD."

Selected ISO country and currency codes

Country	Code	Currency	Code
Algeria	DZ	Algerian dinar	DZD
Angola	AO	kwanza	AOK
Argentina	AR	austral	ARA
Bahamas	BS	Bahamian dollar	BSD
Bangladesh	BD	taka	BDT
Barbados	BB	Barbados dollar	BBD
Bermuda	BM	Bermudian	BMD
Bolivia	BO	Bolivian peso	BOP
Botswana	BW	pula	BWP
Brazil	BR	cruzeiro	BRC
Burkina Faso	BF	CFA franc BCEAO*	XOF
Burma	See Myanmar		
Cameroon	CM	CFA franc BEAC**	XOF
Canada	CA	Canadian dollar	CAD
Central African Republic	CF	CFA franc BEAC**	XAF
Chad	TD	CFA franc BEAC**	XAF
Chile	CL	Chilean peso	CLP
China	CN	yuan renminbi	CNY
Colombia	CO	Colombian peso	COP

* CFA franc BCEAO : responsible authority — Banque Centrale des États de l'Afrique de l'Ouest.
** CFA franc BEAC : responsible authority — Banque des États de l'Afrique Centrale.

ISO country and currency codes

Country	Code	Currency	Code
Congo	CG	CFA franc BEAC**	XAF
Costa Rica	CR	Costa Rican colon	CRC
Côte d'Ivoire	CI	CFA franc BCEAO*	XOF
Dominican Republic	DO	Dominican peso	DOP
Ecuador	EC	sucre	ECS
Egypt	EG	Egyptian pound	EGP
El Salvador	SV	El Salvador colon	SVC
European Community		European currency unit	ECU
France	FR	French franc	FRF
Gambia	GM	dalasi	GMD
Germany, Federal Republic of	DE	deutsche mark	DEM
Ghana	GH	cedi	GHC
Guatemala	GT	quetzal	GTQ
Honduras	HN	lempira	HNL
Hong Kong	HK	Hong Kong dollar	HKD
India	IN	Indian rupee	INR
Indonesia	ID	rupiah	IDR
International Monetary Fund	—	Special Drawing Rights	XDR
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	IR	Iranian rial	IRR
Iraq	IQ	Iraqi dinar	IQD
Ivory Coast	Now Côte d'Ivoire		
Jamaica	JM	Jamaican dollar	JMD
Japan	JP	yen	JPY
Jordan	JO	Jordanian dinar	JOD
Kampuchea, Democratic***	KH	riel	KHR
Kenya	KE	Kenyan shilling	KES
Lesotho	LS	rand	ZAR
		loti	LSL
Liberia	LR	Liberian dollar	LRD
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	LY	Libyan dollar	LYD
Malawi	MW	kwacha	MWK

* CFA franc BCEAO : responsible authority — Banque Centrale des États de l'Afrique de l'Ouest.
** CFA franc BEAC : responsible authority — Banque des États de l'Afrique Centrale.
*** Democratic Kampuchea has officially changed its name to Cambodia. At the time of publication, the new ISO country code and official name were not available.

ISO country and currency codes

Country	Code	Currency	Code
Malaysia	MY	Malaysia ringgit	MYR
Mali	ML	CFA franc BCEAO*	XOF
Mexico	MX	Mexican peso	MXP
Morocco	MA	Moroccan dirham	MAD
Mozambique	MZ	metical	MZM
Myanmar	MM	kyat	MMK
Namibia	NA	rand	ZAR
Nepal	NP	Nepalese rupee	NPR
Netherlands	NL	Netherlands guilder	NLG
New Zealand	NZ	New Zealand dollar	NZD
Nicaragua	NI	cordoba	NIC
Niger	NE	CFA franc BCEAO*	XOF
Nigeria	NG	naira	NGN
Oman	OM	rial Omani	OMR
Pakistan	PK	Pakistan rupee	PKR
Panama	PA	balboa	PAB
		US dollar	USD
Papua New Guinea	PG	kina	PGK
Paraguay	PY	guarani	PYG
Peru	PE	inti	PEI
Philippines	PH	Philippine peso	PHP
Puerto Rico	PR	US dollar	USD
Rwanda	RW	Rwanda franc	RWF
Senegal	SN	CFA franc BCEAO*	XOF
Sierra Leone	SL	leone	SLL
Singapore	SG	Singapore dollar	SGD
Somalia	SO	Somali shilling	SOS
South Africa	ZA	rand	ZAR
		(financial rand)	ZAL
Sri Lanka	LK	Sri Lanka rupee	LKR
Swaziland	SZ	lilangeni	SZL
		rand	ZAR
Tanzania, United Republic of	TZ	Tanzanian shilling	TZS
Thailand	TH	baht	THB
Trinidad and Tobago	TT	Trinidad and Tobago dollar	TTD
Tunisia	TN	Tunisian dinar	TND
Turkey	TR	Turkish lira	TRL

* CFA franc BCEAO : responsible authority — Banque Centrale des États de l'Afrique de l'Ouest.
** CFA franc BEAC : responsible authority — Banque des États de l'Afrique Centrale.

ISO country and currency codes

Country	Code	Currency	Code
Uganda	UG	Ugandan shilling	UGS
United Arab Emirates	AE	UAE dirham	AED
United Kingdom	GB	pound sterling	GBP
United States	US	US dollar	USD
Uruguay	UY	Uruguayan peso	UYP
Venezuela	VE	bolivar	VEB
Viet Nam	VN	dong	VND
Yemen	YE	Yemeni rial	YER
Yemen, Democratic	YD	Yemeni dinar	YDD
Zaire	ZR	zaire	ZRZ
Zambia	ZM	kwacha	ZMK
Zimbabwe	ZW	Zimbabwe dollar	ZWD

* CFA franc BCEAO : responsible authority — Banque Centrale des États de l'Afrique de l'Ouest.
** CFA franc BEAC : responsible authority — Banque des États de l'Afrique Centrale.

FOUR — REFERENCES

Definition

References consist of two parts: the **citation** in the text and the listing of the item in the **bibliography**. In IDRC style, the citation in the text is by author and date (except under very unusual circumstances), and all the items are listed together in a reference list or bibliography.

CITATION

Never use footnotes for literature citations in IDRC publications. Certain scholarly journals (particularly in the social sciences) may use this style.

IDRC rule

Use the **author–date system**, also known as the **Harvard system**, for references. The references are never put into footnotes.

Exception

Use a number system, in publications with many references. References should be in correct alphabetical sequence before numbering (see Bibliography, page 49).

Author–date system

Cite authors in text using the author–date form. No comma separates author and date.

Examples

"... (Smith 1975) ..." or "Smith (1975) reports ...."

More than one citation

Where **more than one citation** is used, arrange them by year first, then alphabetically. Separate authors by semicolons.

Example

(Smith 1975; Jones 1976; Brown 1980; Grey 1980).

Several citations by one author

Where several citations are by **one author**, they appear together under the first date. Separate years by commas and authors by semicolons.

Example

(Smith 1975, 1978; Brown 1976).

Same author with several citations to same year

Several citations by **one author in one year** are listed as a, b, c, etc. Use commas to separate letters and years and semicolons to separate authors. No space between year and first letter. Ensure that the sequence is correct (alphabetical) in reference list before adding letter (see Bibliography, page 49).

Example

(Smith 1975a, b, c, 1978; Brown 1976).

Authors with same family name published in same year

Where two or more authors have the **same family name** and published in the same year, they must be cited with initials to distinguish between them. If they published in different years, it is not necessary to add the initial.

Example

(Smith, J. 1975; Smith, K. 1975; Smith 1978).

Corporate or group authors

For **corporate or group authors**, use an acronym or abbreviation. The acronym need only be defined in the reference list (see Bibliography, page 49).

Example

(CIDA 1970; FAO 1980).

Citing specific pages

Where **specific pages** must be referred to use a comma then p. or pp. then the specific pages.

Example

(Smith 1975, pp. 172–184).

Citing another author's figure or table

Where a figure or table is cited from **another author's work**, the initial letter should be lower case. This also applies in text.

Example

(Smith 1978, fig. 10) or Smith's table 12 (1978, p. 233).

References with multiple authors

When a reference has two authors, give both authors.

Example

(Smith and Grey 1980).

For three or more authors, use "**et al.**" for all citations including the first.

Example

Smith et al. (1980).

Exceptions for et al.

Repeat the author name and et al. where the first author is the same but any subsequent author(s) is different.

Example

If there are two references such as "Smith, R.A.; Jones, M.; Wood, R. 1977" and "Smith, R.A.; Wood, R.; Jones, M.; Green, S. 1978," the style of a citation in the same place to both these references would be (Smith et al. 1977; Smith et al. 1978), *not* (Smith et al. 1977, 1978).

Give the second author's name before the et al. if both references in this case had the same date, say 1978. This must be done on every occasion they are cited in the text.

Example

(Smith, Jones et al. 1978; Smith, Wood et al. 1978).

List all surnames until they indicate a unique reference, if more than the first authors are the same.

Example

Two references such as "Smith, B.A.; Brown, R.F.; Jones, M. 1980" and "Smith, B.A.; Brown, R.F.; Green, B.G. 1980" would be cited as (Smith, Brown, and Green 1980; Smith, Brown, and Jones 1980).

Numbered references

The following rules apply where numbered references are used.

Authors may be referred to by name if it is necessary.

Example

"... Smith (15) reports ..."

Where more than one reference is cited, arrange them in numerical sequence.

Example

"Smith (24) has been quoted by many authors (1, 5, 6, 10–15, 21)."

Note use of **commas**, **dash** (–) for inclusive numbers, and **no "and"** before the last number.

Punctuation

Comma

Used a comma to separate pages from year in a single reference, letters for several references in 1 year, or years from year references of a single author in the author–date system or numbers in a series of numbered references.

Example

"... (Croome 1987, pp. 123–132; Carman 1988a, b; Beaudry 1991, 1992) ..."

Dash

Used to show page range in a precise page reference in author–date system or a range of numbers in numbered references. Use an en dash. See example under *Comma*.

Semicolon

Used between citations of different authors in a parenthetical series in the author–date system. See example under *Comma*.

Miscellaneous points

Specific book titles

Italicize the title and capitalize nouns and adjectives when **specific book titles** are given in the text.

Example

Judd (1982), in *Copyediting: A Practical Guide*, recommends that ....

Part title

Use quotes without added caps, for a **part title** (chapter in a book or paper within a journal).

Example

"Carman (1990), in his paper "How to alienate a nonsmoker" published in *Journal of Office Policy*, suggests ...."

Year not given

Use the abbreviation **n.d.** to replace the year when the item is cited in the text and no year is given on a reference. "n.d." references should follow correctly dated references when cited in the text.

Example

(Smith 1957, 1980; Jones 1975; Brown n.d.).

Estimated year

If you do not know the year of publication but can make an educated guess, use square brackets to enclose the date.

Example

Text: Smith [1990] states ...

Very old, republished works

Use square brackets to give the original year of publication (if possible) because this is more meaningful to the reader than the modern republished date.

Example

Darwin 1978 [1875]

Personal communications

Personal communications should rarely be cited in text. If essential, they are cited as a footnote and should give enough information so that the reader could contact the person cited, that is, initials and address.

Example

Text: ... (Smith 1957; Brown n.d.; Grut, personal communication, 1984[1]).

Footnote: [1] M. Grut, World Bank, Washington, DC, USA, personal communication, 1984.

If there are many such references, they can be moved into the text and follow full references.

Example

(Smith 1957; Brown n.d.; M. Grut, World Bank, Washington, DC, USA, personal communication, 1984).

Internal cross-references

If you must cite other papers in the volume being prepared, use the form "Smith (this volume)" **NOT** year and listing in the reference list.

Use a specific page reference only if it is **absolutely** necessary.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Strictly speaking, a bibliography can include items that are not cited in the text whereas a reference list includes only cited items. IDRC's style is to use only a reference list unless there is a particular need for a bibliography.

Sequencing of entries

Within a reference list, sequence entries according to the following rules:

1 List **alphabetically**, according to first author's family name, without numbering them (unless the numbers are used in the text). See *CBE Style Manual* (chapter 3) or *Manual for Preparing Records in Microcomputer-based Bibliographic Information Systems* (IDRC-TS67e; annex 1) for correct listing of non-English names

2 Arrange in **year sequence** (oldest to most recent) where an author has more than one.

3 **Within year**, where an author has more than one reference in the same year, arrange in alphabetic sequence of first word of title (excluding definite or indefinite articles) or in order of citation within the book — but be consistent, then assign letters a, b, c, etc. within year.

4 With **multiple authors**, arrange alphabetically by first author, second author, third, etc.

Example

Stockwell; Croome; Kealey. 1980. would appear before Stockwell; Drysdale; Legros. 1979.

5 List **corporate authors** alphabetically by the initial form first with the spelled out form in parentheses.

Example

CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency). 1980....

Sequencing of elements

The information elements and sequence needed for the four common types of reference are shown in the following examples. The solidus (/) breaks the elements and would be a period in the actual references.

1 *articles in periodicals*

author(s) / year of publication / title of article / title of periodical (not abbreviated), volume number, issue number (if available), inclusive page numbers.

2 *books*

author(s) or editor(s) / year of publication / title of book (edition number) / publisher, place of publication (city, country) / number of pages.

3 *articles within books*
author(s) / year of publication / title of chapter or article / editor(s), *In* title of book / publisher, place of publication / repôrt number if it exists inclusive page numbers.

4 *unpublished papers* (presented at workshops, seminars, and conferences)
author(s) / year of meeting / title of paper / title of meeting, dates of meeting, location of meeting / sponsoring agency / number of pages.

5 *theses or internal reports*
author(s) / year / title / university or agency, address / type of thesis or identification number of report, number of pages.

Examples of these follow. Note positions of authors, use of punctuation, and use of capitals. Note also that "and" is not used between authors. (Numbers refer to the five types of reference listed above.)

1 Young, A.S.; Burridge, M.J.; Payne, R.C. 1977. Transmission of a *Theileria* species to cattle by the ixodid tick *Amblyomma cohaerens*, Ponitz 1909. Tropical Animal Health Products, 9(1), 37–45.

2 Yeh, S.H.K., ed. 1975. Public housing in Singapore: A multidisciplinary study. Singapore University Press, Singapore. 439 pp.

3 Graber, M. 1981. Helminths in wild ruminants in central Africa: Impact on domestic ruminants. *In* Karstad, L.; Nestel, B.; Graham, M., ed., Wildlife disease research and economic development. International Development Research Centre, Ottawa, ON, Canada. IDRC-179e, 48–52.

4 Sumintardja, D. 1975. Low-cost housing in Indonesia. Presented at Seminar on low-cost housing and fire research, March 1975, Singapore. Association for Science Cooperation in Asia, Dae Jeng, Korea. 16 pp.

5 Hamidi, A.S. 1975. Motivational factors toward literacy in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ, USA. PhD dissertation, 132 pp.

Miscellaneous points

Translated title

Where the title for a reference is a **translation**, the original language should be noted as the last element in the reference. If the original language is used, do not give the language note.

Example

NESDB (National Economic and Social Development Board). 1977. Fourth national economic and social development plan, 1977–81. NESDB, Bangkok, Thailand. 365 pp. [In Thai.]

Abbreviations in reference lists

Do not abbreviate journal titles in reference lists in IDRC publications.

Full forms of abbreviated titles are given in

- *American Standard for Periodical Title Abbreviations* (Z39.5);
- *BIOSIS List of Serials*

Publisher's address

For publishers in Canada or the USA, use the two-letter province/state codes.

Example

International Devlopment Research Centre, Ottawa, ON, Canada.
Josiah Macy Jr Foundation, New York, NY, USA.

Where the address of a publisher gives more than one city, it is only necessary to list the first.

Format

IDRC style for references is to set the first line full width and indent subsequent lines. Sample references in this section are set up in this way.

Multiple references

Several entries by one author (or the same group of authors) do not have the author(s) name(s) repeated in the second or subsequent entries, instead the authors are replaced by a ½-inch line (represented by six underlines).

Example

NESDB (National Economic and Social Development Board). 1977. Fourth national economic and social development plan, 1977–81. NESDB, Bangkok, Thailand. 365 pp. [In Thai.]

_____ 1978. Fifth national economic and social development plan, 1981–85. NESDB, Bangkok, Thailand. 400 pp. [In Thai.]

Articles within books

The word "In" is in italics (underlined if your printer will not create italic).

Volume editor

The abbreviation "ed." is singular even where there are more than one editor.

Copublished books

For copublished books, it is not necessary to give both (all) publishers, but IDRC's style is to do so if possible.

Internal references

For internal references to another paper in the manuscript being prepared, use the form "Smith (this volume)" in the text and do **not** list the article/chapter in the reference list.

Estimated year

If you can guess at the year of publication, give the estimated year in the reference list in brackets.

Example

Reference list: Brown, J. [1981]. ...

Year not given

If you do not know the year of publication, use n.d. in the reference list as well as in the text.

Example

Reference list: Jones, G. n.d. ...

Bibliographies

Follow the guidelines set out in *Guidelines for the compilation of a bibliography* produced by the National Library of Canada (published September 1987) [IDRC Library call number REF 010 G8].

The following topics are discussed:

Topic; Purpose and Audience; Scope; Outline; Sources; Bibliographic Form; Organization; Additional Features (indexes, annotations, library locations of works cited, and numbering of entries); Preliminaries (or Front Matter); Accuracy; Timeliness; Layout; Qualifications (of the compiler); and Promotion of the Publication.

FIVE — LANGUAGE BIAS

PHILOSOPHY

IDRC's activities are directed to the development of all people and the promotion of human equality and opportunity. Its publications should, therefore, reflect this philosophy through their language and illustrations.

In the IDRC story, language should never be prejudicial, stereotype, or exclude part of humanity. Clear, precise communication is the aim.

Generic vs false generic

A **generic term** is an all-purpose, gender-free word that includes everybody. A **false generic** is a word that is claimed to include all people, but that in reality does not.

Example

Some speakers and writers use **mankind** to mean **everybody**, but not all their listeners and readers perceive the word that way: it is a false generic.

The suffix **-man** could refer to an adult male human being — it might not, of course. Each time people encounter this convention, they must decide which meaning is intended.

Clarity of thought and expression demands that this ambiguous use of the word be eliminated.

Racial, social, and gender stereotypes

Although racial and social stereotypes are usually easy to recognize and avoid, gender bias is more pervasive and, hence, less apparent. Equally, gender bias is sometimes more difficult to avoid because of the nature of the language.

A little careful thought will usually produce better — gender-free and clearer — wording.

Parallel and inclusive treatment

One of the keys to avoiding unfair bias is to ensure that people of **both sexes** and **all races, religions, ages,** etc. are given parallel treatment and that words and expressions used are inclusive.

Limitations

Because usage is determined by the context in which words and expressions occur and the audience for which the material is intended, it is difficult to impose rigid rules.

IDRC rules

The following guidelines should help ensure that all materials produced by IDRC are unbiased.

Limitation

These guidelines obviously cannot apply to documents that deal with matters related to only one of the sexes.

Quotations that contain exclusive language should be paraphrased if possible to remove bias.

In IDRC publications

Few pejorative words or expressions should find their way into material IDRC might consider publishing. However, the fact that the following are still in the unabridged version of *Webster's* provides food for thought:

jew — to cheat by sharp business practice;

welsh — to cheat by avoiding payment of debts; to avoid dishonourably the fulfillment of an obligation;

dutch treat — a meal [etc.] for which each person pays his [sic] own way;

street arab — a homeless vagabond in the city;

dago — (a corruption of Diego, a common Spanish given name) a person of Italian or Spanish birth or descent;

indian giver — one who gives something and then takes it back; and

yellow peril — a danger to Western civilization held to arise from the expansion of the power and influence of oriental peoples.

All of these are, to a greater or lesser degree, offensive to members of the racial or national groups concerned.

Avoid any terms that may give offense to a particular nationality or group. Many pejorative terms are considerably more subtle than those given above. For instance, Asiatic means the same thing as Asian, but is considered insulting by most Asians (a fact recognized even by *Webster's*).

Challenged vs disabled or handicapped

People with physical disabilities usually prefer the word "challenged" to "disabled" or "handicapped" — for example, physically challenged. (When this section was first written in 1985, disabled was the "new" acceptable term; now — 1993 — disabled is on the unacceptable list!)

Similarly, the word "retarded" has a very specific meaning, and should not be confused with learning disability. "Dumb" means mute, it does not mean stupid or inexperienced, despite the definition in *Webster's*.

Context

Frequently, a word or expression becomes disparaging by virtue of the context in which it is used.

Peasant

Peasant is a legitimate term, in the proper context, to describe smallholder farmers or farm labourers. However, the word has other connotations (*Webster's*: a rather uneducated, uncouth person in the low-income group) and can, in fact, be used as a deliberate insult. Perhaps it is better avoided, rather than risk offending an impoverished, but couth and educated, farm worker.

Native or indigenous people

Similarly, the word **natives** can conjure up visions of British colonial Africa ("Gad, the natives are restless tonight, Carruthers!") if poorly placed. Native people or indigenous peoples avoids the problem.

Girl vs woman

The only acceptable use of girl is when referring to a female child.

Other uses ("My girl will get the file"/"The girls are preparing lunch") are belittling. Bear in mind also that *Webster's* definitions of girl include female servant and prostitute. So, use women, not girls.

Boy vs man

Last, but not least, a boy is a male child, nothing else. Expressions such as stock boy, house boy, etc. should be avoided if the boy in question is in reality a man.

Underdeveloped, etc.

Underdeveloped countries is definitely out, and is considered offensive by many. The whole range of terms here is rather tricky.

Less-developed now seems to be less-acceptable.

Least-developed refers to a specific group of countries classified by the World Bank as being in greatest need of assistance.

Developing, perhaps because it is so imprecise, is still the safest word to use. It is unsatisfactory, however, in that it implies that there is a state of "developedness" that has been attained by some countries (the developed ones) — strictly, all countries are developing.

South (capitalized) is also a relatively safe word despite its geographic imprecision: New Zealand is in the south and Ethiopia is in the north but Ethiopia is a Southern country and New Zealand a Northern one.

Poor countries should also be avoided except where it is justified by the context. So should poor farmers, villagers, etc. Poor is just too loose a term. If you mean **subsistence farmer**, say so.

Black Africa

Do not use the term Black Africa. Replace it by "sub-Saharan Africa" if South Africa is to be included or by "developing countries of sub-Saharan Africa" if South Africa is to be excluded.

Age, sex, religion, and race

Modifiers that refer to age, sex, religion, race, etc. should only be used if they are relevant in the context of the statement.

It was perfectly legitimate to point out that Margaret Thatcher was Europe's first woman prime minister when she was first elected or to have described Andrew Young as America's first black ambassador to the UN at the time of his appointment.

In normal circumstances, however, it should not be necessary to point out that Mrs Thatcher is a woman, nor that Mr Young is black.

In the same vein, it is normally unnecessary to say **woman doctor** (or teacher, engineer, driver, researcher, etc.), or to say **black lawyer** (writer, politician, dentist, scientist, etc.).

> *In most contexts, this additional information is irrelevant, and to include it is simply sloppy writing.*

Futhermore, the unnecessary use of such modifiers subtly implies that there is something abnormal about being a woman doctor, or a black one, and that the norm for doctors is white and male. This also works the other way around with terms such as male nurse.

Worse still is the use of expressions such as "a good woman doctor," which implies, of course, that she is good "for a woman" (but not up to male standards, naturally). The use of the modifier merely creates confusion.

Example

"Marie Curie was one of the greatest women scientists."

- Is she being judged in this statement on a par with all other scientists, or only with other women scientists?
- The statement should read either "Marie Curie was one of the greatest scientists." OR "Among women scientists, Marie Curie was one of the greatest."

Again, it is simply a matter of good writing (or editing) to ensure that the statement really says what is intended.

Another commonly used modifier is "working," as in working wife or working mother. Working women will suffice, except when it is necessary to point out that the woman in question is married and employed or is a mother and employed.

In either of these cases, say what you mean — any mother will testify that there is no such creature as a nonworking mother, even if she is fortunate enough to be able to afford domestic help.

Ageism

Perhaps one of the most frequently used, unnecessary modifiers is reference to age. It is not necessary to say the **old man**, unless his age is relevant to the context.

Old has many connotations: in some cultures, it can mean wise and experienced, whereas in others it implies weak and senile. Similarly, **young** can be used as a euphemism for inexperienced, as in "the young scientists participating in the training program."

In this context, it is fine but, used in a phrase such as "the young scientist in charge of the project," it could be taken to imply incompetence.

Old vs Young — The use of both old and young in a pejorative sense obviously depends very much on the context: take care to avoid giving unintentional offense.

Religious names

Finally, although hardly pejorative, it should be noted that by no means all the world's people are Christians, and it is therefore safer to use **given name** or **personal name** rather than Christian name. **First name** is not appropriate because many cultures place the family name first followed by the given name.

Other expressions that have religious overtones should also be avoided, as should specific titles such as priest or sheikh when what is meant is religious or community leader.

WORD USAGE

Man as a generic

Man has become so closely linked with its definition "adult male" that it no longer serves as a generic term to describe all human beings. Thus, readers must guess whether man refers to all people or just to adult males.

> *This is kind of ambiguity that editors and writers are in the business of trying to clear up.*

The **generic "man"** can usually be replaced by **human beings**, **people**, **humanity**, or some other word that suits the context.

Example

"... the job of meeting man's food needs will be left to those few ..." could easily be "... the job of meeting people's [or humanity's, world, global, human] food needs will be ...."

Someone, anyone, and **everyone** are often good substitutes for the phrase "a man who...." Or a sentence can sometimes quite profitably be rewritten.

Example

"A plow without a man will not affect production" would be better as "A plow alone will not affect production."

Man as a verb can usually be replaced by a more precise word, for instance, "staff" or "operate."

Eliminating the word entirely is often an even better solution.

Example

"In the prayers of men in all great religions, the quest for one's daily bread embodies all of man's material needs" would be better as "In the prayers of all great religions, the quest for one's daily bread embodies all material needs."

Man in compound words

Used to mean person as part of a compound word, **man** has the same drawbacks as it does in the generic sense. Clearer, more precise words can usually be substituted, or, as in other examples, careful pruning can do the trick. In fact, it can improve sentences immensely.

Example

"Mankind cannot live without water. To survive, the equivalent of at least 1.4 L of water per day must be taken into the body in the form of foods of liquids" could be "To survive, people need an intake of 1.4 L of water per day" or "To survive, each person needs an intake of 1.4 L of water per day."

Persons and other people

Person or people can at times replace the word **man in compound terms**, and several new words (for example, chairperson, lay person) that were coined this way have gained widespread acceptance.

Those that have been incorporated in everyday usage are suitable for inclusion in IDRC publications. However, person is frequently overused, tacked on indiscriminately to replace the generic man in compound words.

Also, it is sometimes used as a euphemism for woman, as was done in an IDRC seminar set up by the former Communications Division some time ago. The program included chairmen as well as a chairperson, who was a woman.

Common sense is the key to using "person" effectively.

Pronoun problems

Avoid the use of the pronouns **he, his**, and **him** — as well as **she** and **her** — to refer to any unspecified or hypothetical person who may be either male or female. In addition, the surrounding text should indicate that the subject may be of either sex.

Solve this problem in one of several ways — **pluralizing, eliminating the pronouns**, or **rephrasing the sentence**, or **using the "neutral" pronouns they, you, one, and it**. Judicious use of these alternatives should produce a clear, euphonious text.

Pluralizing

Sentences can often be rewritten in the plural form without affecting meaning.

Example

NOT: "If, after independent project work, the trainee continues to exhibit competence, he may be promoted to the position of water foreman or water assistant."

BUT: "If, after independent project work, the trainees continue to exhibit competence, they may be promoted to the position of water supervisor or water assistant."

Double pronouns

Although double pronouns — "he and she" — can be clumsy if overused, they help avoid the problem of "neutralizing" sentences in which some readers may automatically assume the subject to be male. For emphasis, you can reverse the sequence and use "she and he."

Example

NOT: "If, after independent project work, the trainee continues to exhibit competence, he may be promoted to the position ...."

BUT: "If, after independent project work, the trainee continues to exhibit competence, he or she may be promoted...."

Eliminating pronouns

Pronouns can often be dropped entirely or replaced without nouns.

Example

NOT: "An interviewer or observer almost always has to make difficult treks through mountains, streams, rivers.... After a day's hard walk, he often finds that the village he has just reached cannot accommodate him."

BUT: "An interviewer or observer almost always has to make difficult treks through mountains, streams, rivers.... After a day's hard walk, the traveler often finds that the village reached has no accommodation."

Rephrasing sentences

Sentences can often be rewritten to avoid the use of pronouns.

Example

NOT: "If, after independent project work, the trainee continues to exhibit competence, he may be promoted to the position...."

BUT: "The trainee who continues to exhibit competence after independent project work may be promoted to the position...."

They as singular

Although rejected by some grammarians, the use of they as a singular pronoun is becoming more widespread and has been used for centuries by a number of writers.

Examples

"It's enough to drive anyone out of their senses." — George Bernard Shaw

"Nobody prevents you, do they?" — William Makepeace Thackeray

"You do not have to understand someone in order to love them." — Lawrence Durrell

NOT: "The key to the success of these projects is the involvement of the whole community and the setting up of an organization that can...ensure that everyone does his share."

BUT: "The key to the success of these projects is the involvement of the whole community and the setting up of an organization that can...ensure that everyone does their share."

You

In instructional materials, the third person pronoun can be avoided by addressing the reader directly.

Example

On arriving in the tropics, you should allow several days to adapt to the local conditions and recover from "jet lag."

One

One sometimes serves as third person pronoun.

Example

"On arriving in the tropics, one should allow several days to adapt to the local conditions and recover from "jet lag."

It

Refer to objects such as ships, automobiles ("Fill 'er up"), geysers ("Thar she blows"), etc. as *it*, do not personalize them. Similarly, unless the sex of the animal is germane, it should be referred to as *it*.

Other words

Feminine suffixes

Webster's defines agent-nouns — author, farmer, narrator, etc. — as one who performs the action. Adding Latin feminine-gender suffixes implies a deviation from the norm.

These suffixes are:

-ine: of or belonging to

-ess: female

-ette: 1. a little one (of the thing or class specified); 2. a group of (as in octette); 3. female; 4. imitation; substitute.

-trix: female that does or is associated with a (specified) thing.

When used in action-nouns, these suffixes serve as a modifier in the same way as other sex-linked descriptives (see earlier). Thus, a poetess is "a female poet"; an actress is "a female actor"; an executrix is "a woman exercising the functions of an executor."

Using the same agent noun for both sexes may be the simplest way to avoid linguistic sexism. For words like airline steward/stewardess that are enshrined in usage, it is preferable to use alternate terms such as "flight attendant."

Miscellaneous words

Coed

An abbreviation for "coeducational" entered the language as derisive slang for women admitted to institutions of higher learning that had previously been male preserves. The proper term is student.

Divorcée

Webster's (1971) defines only the feminine-gender form indicating the predilection for labeling a woman's marital circumstances. It should be avoided and a common gender "divorcé" adopted.

Fellow

Signifies a partner, colleague, coworker, or member of a society. All forms of the word are common-gender nouns except for "fellowman."

Master

Master is a common-gender noun when used to describe someone who possesses mastery of an art or technique. The word mistress has not acquired this meaning!

Midwife

Midwife is an accepted designation for persons of either sex trained to assist at births.

TREATMENT OF MATERIALS

Generalizations

Assigning gender to generic terms

The average person is neither male nor female. Therefore, it is incorrect to assign gender to average people.

Example

NOT: "From the information gathered by the researchers, the following picture of a typical hawker emerges. He is a native-born or long-term resident of the city.... He works long hours, sometimes as many as 16 hours a day, and lacks the facilities or knowledge ...."

BUT: "The information gathered by the researchers gives the following picture. The typical hawker is male [if this is what the author meant] and a native-born or long-term resident of the city.... The working day is long, as much as 16 hours a day, and the average hawker lacks the facilities or knowledge ...."

Equally, collective nouns or national nouns include members of both sexes and again should not be assigned a gender. In rare cases, a collective noun

may be gender specific, for example, in developing country settings, midwives are almost always women.

Example

NOT: "Dr Castillo ... views the farmer not just as a farmer, but also as a family man, a consumer and as a target of development programs."
BUT: "Dr Castillo ... views the farmer as not just a farmer, but also as a parent, a consumer, and a target of development programs."

"Wife" abuse

Wives are people too and should not be referred to only in terms of their husband's position. Equally, using "wife" as a term of exclusion should be avoided.

Example

NOT: "They are called farmers for discussion purposes, although it is realized many are wives, children, and hired workers."
BUT: "Farmer, as used in this study, refers to all adults and children, whether owners or hired help, engaged in agricultural production."

Needless modifiers

Unless it is important to the meaning and sense of the sentence, the gender of the person being discussed should not be specified.

Example

In "The male midwife is rare," the word "male" probably is necessary, but in "The female doctor and her patient discussed the problem," "female" is unnecessary as it is shown by the possessive, which may also be unnecessary.

Parallel wording and standard sequences

The classic example of nonparallel wording is "I now pronounce you man and wife." This is usually changed now to "husband and wife."

A similar lack of parallel is found in "men, women, and children": it should be either "adults and children" or "men and women, boys and girls."

All of these revisions show the standard sequences that we have come to expect and that are used unless emphasis is intended. There is generally no reason why the sequences could not be reversed. "Girls and boys, women and men" is generally as "right" as any of the other sequences that might be possible.

All too frequently, nonparallel treatment is shown in descriptive material. Age, appearance, or marital status is used to describe women, but professional status is used to describe men.

Unless the particular description is germane and the meaning is clear, such adjectives should be omitted.

Often, this kind of description disguises fuzzy thought.

Example

NOT: "The target population is preschool children and marriageable women ...."

BUT: "The target population is preschool children and women of child-bearing age ...."

However, we cannot be sure that this is what the authors intended as, elsewhere in the same article, they refer to girls of 10–15 years and adult women.

POSSIBLE SUBSTITUTE WORDS

There are several books devoted to nonsexist writing; among them is Rosalie Maggio's *The Non-Sexist Word Finder* (1987) that, in addition to the list of words, has an appendix on "Writing Guidelines" and another of selected "Readings." Both the guidelines and the readings, although aimed at sexist writing, can be read in terms of racist or any other kind of "-ist" writing.

Comment

Do not follow these suggestions slavishly, they are given only to help start the thought process of finding alternatives to words that may be seen as "sexist."

Not	*But*
airman	aviator, pilot
anchorman	news commentator, announcer, newscaster
assemblyman	assembler
barman, barmaid	bar attendant
businessman	entrepreneur, business executive
cameraman	camera operator, photographer
cattleman	rancher
chairman / chairwoman	chairperson
clergyman	clergy
cowboy	cowhand
craftsman	artisan
crewman / crewmen	crew member, crew
dairyman	dairy worker
draftsman	drafting technician
fellowman	fellow, fellow citizen, etc.
fireman	fire fighter
flagman	flag person, traffic controller
foreman	supervisor, job boss
herdsman	herder, herd owner, rancher
housewife	homemaker
insurance man	insurance agent / insurance representative
layman	lay person, laity, uninitiated
lineman	line installer, repairer

longshoreman	stevedore
maid / janitor	house (office) cleaner, building superintendent, custodian
man (verb)	staff, operate, etc.
man-day	work day, person-day
manhole	access
mankind	humans, humanity, people, human beings
man-made	artificial, manufactured
manpower	personnel, human resources, workers, work force, labour
matron	attendant, correctional officer (in prison setting)
middleman	intermediary, wholesaler
newspaperman, newsman	reporter, journalist, writer
nursing aides and orderlies	nursing attendants
paper boys / paper girls	paper carriers
policeman / policewoman	police officer
postman, mailman	letter carrier, mail carrier, postal worker
pressman	press operator
repairman	repairer
salesman / saleswoman	sales clerk, sales representative, sales person, seller
seaman	sailor
seamstress	dressmaker, tailor
spokesman	representative
steward / stewardess	flight attendant, attendant
watchman	guard
weatherman	weathercaster, weather reporter, meteorologist

SIX — GRAPHICS AND TABLES

Tables are included with graphics because they are visually different from straight text. Graphics includes both line illustrations — charts of various kinds, maps, drawings, and cartoons — and photographs.

Table vs illustration

Although some material might appear as either a table or chart, one or the other may be a better choice: is the intention to give exact values (use a table) or to show trends (use a chart)?

ILLUSTRATIONS

Definition

Illustrations can be broken down by the process required to print them:

- **Line drawings** — graphics that are made up of solid black or solid white with no greys — and
- **Halftones** — photographs and drawings that have shades of grey in them. Colour photographs, which are very rare in IDRC publications, are a special case of halftones.

Guidelines for IDRC books

The following principles can only be taken as guides for IDRC publications because many illustrations are supplied as finished artwork. However, if you can control the finished artwork, please ask the author to follow these guides.

Text and tables can be manipulated editorially to suit IDRC style, but completed **line drawings** are difficult to alter and expensive to redraw. Therefore, they must be correctly prepared to start.

Photographs that are poor to start with cannot be improved, but good ones can be badly treated and so result in poor illustrations in a printed book.

Halftones are more expensive to reproduce than line drawings and are not always more suitable.

Example

A schematic of a machine is usually more effective than a photo. Unneeded detail can be omitted from a drawing but is kept in a photo.

Title

Illustration titles have a final period. Only the first word and proper nouns are capitalized.

Numbering

Use consecutive arabic numerals through each paper (for proceedings-style publications) or through the whole book, including appendices, for "single-author" books.

Illustration size

IDRC's books generally have a printed area of about 10 x 12 cm. Illustrations must fit within the printed area so they must be planned to fit these dimensions with allowance for a caption.

Illustrations need not be full text width if this will result in an unnecessarily "open" figure.

LINE DRAWINGS

Originals

Because the author may have submitted only photocopies, check that what you have to work on are indeed photocopies of the "originals." For the Gold Series publications, the editor should write to the author as soon as the manuscript is accepted to retrieve the originals.

Type size

Lettering, when reduced, should be no less than 1.5 mm (6-point type) and preferably no more than 3 mm high.

Upper and lower case letters are easier to read than capital letters at these sizes. Letters must be well spaced and not too narrow.

Space should be left around a decimal point.

Styles of line drawings

There are several types of line drawings: statistical (pie, bar, scatter, and line), organizational and flow, maps, engineering drawings, and some cartoons.

The type of statistical chart chosen will depend on the point to be made. Some data can be expressed in several forms but not all are suitable.

Pie

A pie chart is used to show proportional relationships. Keep the number of "slices" to a minumum because the larger the number, the harder it is to compare the slices. Avoid "exploded" or three-dimensional pies as these are harder to read.

Bar

Bar charts show trends or compare quantities. The bars can contain a number of different elements distinguished by shading (or colour). It is possible to "stack" elements within bars or to have several bars for each item. The bars represent discontinuous items — for example, the provinces of Canada.

Scatter

Scatter diagrams show all data points plotted on x-y axes to show trends or patterns. Various elements can be distinguished by using different graphic shapes for the points.

Line
Line charts are used to show variation in one "dimension" over variation in another. Both dimensions must be continuous — for example, growth in height over age.

Organizational
Organization charts show the hierarchy in an organization or project. Elements are arranged so that relationships become apparent.

Flow
Flow charts are similar to organizational charts in that they are a series of boxes that have serial relationships to each other. They can show movement over time or over location.

Maps
All **maps** should have a north arrow and a scale. Give any **scale** in a bar form so that it changes with the scale of the drawing during reduction or enlagement.

Whenever possible, avoid maps, they are a source of difficulty and problems. If any of the borders are in doubt, add a **disclaimer**:

> "The boundaries and names shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Development Research Centre."

Notes

Reduction
Reduction of line drawings helps minimize minor defects and uneveness of lines; however, reduction by more than two or three times is undesirable.

After reduction, open and closed **symbols** should still be distinguishable. Half-filled symbols are particularly difficult to distinguish.

Solid or open symbols of different shapes help solve the problem of the too-great contrast between open and solid symbols of the same shape.

Significant digits
Keep number of digits to a level consistent with the style of illustration (and available space) rather than with the degree of accuracy allowed by the original data; essentially meaningless zeros should be omitted from a graph.

Axis ticks
Not all the axis ticks need to be labeled.

Scales
Give any **scales** (for example, on a map) in bar form so that they change with the scale of the drawing during reduction or enlagement.

Extraneous material

Keep illustrations free of extraneous material.

Often *all* data need not be used. Representative data will put the point across without confusing the reader with exceptions to the main point.

Explanatory notes should be part of the title.

Keys

Avoid keys that clutter the figure and make reading difficult. Each line should be labeled on the graph.

If labeling makes the illustration too cluttered, two graphs are probably required.

Translation — in illustrations that will be translated, a key is easier because of relabelling.

Abbreviations

Abbreviations should follow IDRC editorial practice.

Familiar vs unfamiliar

Select conventional arrangements for graphs; a familiar arrangement is easier for the reader to understand than an unfamiliar.

Simplicity is the keynote for any visual aid.

Line weight

For a **scatter diagram**, the scatter of the points is usually more important than the regression line, and the points should be made relatively darker than the line to emphasize them.

In most other **graphs**, the "trend" line is more important than the points, and the points should be given less prominence.

Grouped lines tends to emphasize the general shape, and a group of curves need not be drawn with such heavy lines as a single curve.

Grid lines

Reduce grids to ticks on the coordinates. Precise points rarely need to be computed from the graph; only when they do should complete grids be used. Usually if the precise values are needed, a table would be more suitable than a graph.

If scaling from the zero point wastes much space, adjust the coordinates to compensate, for example, by using broken axes.

Comparison graphs

If two or more graphs are to be compared, they should be the same scale after reduction. They should have the same style of labeling.

Forms as illustration

Put a box around an illustration that is a typed (or typeset) form of some kind. This gives it more definition as a "unit" separate from the text.

PHOTOGRAPHS

Authors should send a selection of photographs with their manuscript. IDRC's slide bank files or the appropriate Program Division can also be consulted for further suitable photographs. Generally, extra photographs beyond those required to illustrate particular points in the text (that is, text figures) are not added to the book.

Photographic print

High-quality glossy prints, preferably 12.7 × 17.8 cm (5 × 7 inches), should be submitted.

Notes

Although details of photo selection, cropping, etc. should rest with IDRC staff, keep the following in mind if the text that you are editing must refer to details in the photographs.

Superfluous material

Crop out any unnecessary areas on the print to lessen the degree of reduction.

Never put **crop marks** directly on the photograph: put them on the mounting board or on a tissue overlay.

Alignment

When cropping photographs, be alert to verticals. You can easily give an unbalanced feeling to a photograph if you use one side of the original and do not crop to restore any vertical elements in the photograph — they may have been distorted in taking the photographs — to parallel the sides of the final print.

Final dimensions

Note the final dimensions exactly and approximate reduction/magnification as a percentage of the original size.

Scale bar

In photographs with a scale (for example, photomicrograph or electron micrograph), any change from the original size will alter magnification as stated in the caption. Therefore, put the scale directly on the photograph.

Submission

Halftones *must* be kept flat. Bends or cracks on the surface will reproduce. Pressure marks from pins, staples, paper clips, or writing on the back of the photograph also mar the reproduction.

Mounting

Photos should be mounted on white cardboard or heavy paper with the cropping marked neatly on this. Do not use rubber cement to mount photographs.

Labeling

Each figure should be identified with the author's name and figure number. Preferably this should be done with a sticky label on the back of the photograph or on the mounting.

Any labeling to appear on the photograph in the printed book should be on an overlay and not glued directly on the surface of the photograph.

TABLES

Tables should be able to stand alone from the text. Therefore, any abbreviations should be common ones or be explained in a note.

Rules for IDRC tables

Title

Table titles are centered and have a final period. Only the first word and proper nouns are capitalized.

It should be terse and to the point. It should include Contents, Agent, Place, and Time. Units are not usually given in the title.

If a full statement of the contents of a table will make the title too long, use a brief title and put the detail in a footnote. If you need four lines for the title, it is probably too long!

Dates showing the period that the data cover should always appear at the end of the title. A dash between dates implies the presence of data for the years stated and the intervening years: do not include **inclusive** in the title. If noncalendar years are used, this should be stated in the title or in a footnote.

Numbering

Use consecutive arabic numerals through each paper (for proceedings-style publications) or through the whole book, including appendices, for "single-author" books.

Rules

All rules (often called "lines") are hairlines; **never** use vertical rules except for "double-across" tables, then use a double hairline; use double top rule; keep internal rules to a minimum; there is no rule at the bottom of the page on a table that runs on to another page (see *Run-on tables*, page 74).

Rules (lines) have three uses in a table:
- They break up a table into its component parts,
- They separate the table from the text, and
- They show the relationships between parts of the box head where there is more than one tier of headings.

Box head

The box head is the heading for the data columns. Each should be brief, if possible containing less than six words. Only the first word in each heading is capitalized. One tier of headings is preferable but more than one may be used.

Headings are separated from subheadings below by a rule — called a straddle rule. Breaks in the rule show relationships between headings and subheadings.

Put the units of measure in the box head, not below the rule.

Abbreviations

Use only well-known abbreviations (following IDRC style). Do not use No. or # for "number" except for an identification number or if it is unavoidable, in which case use No. "Number of" is rarely necessary at all. If unusual abbreviations must be used, they should be defined in a footnote or in a table note.

Stub column

The stub is the first column (left-hand) in the table. The items may be grouped within the column.

Entries and subentries

Different levels in the stub column can be distinguished in one of three ways:
- The main entry can be in a different type face (bold or italic);
- It can be centred; or
- The subentries can be indented (usually 1 en).

Example

Pesticide	1987
Deltamethrin	
Pure EC[a]	980
Mixed with —	
organophosphates	318
DDVP[b]	157
o-methoate	45
Fenvalerate	
Pure EC	492
Mixed with —	
organophosphates	203
DDVP	123
o-methoate	30

Two or more items may be combined in the stub column:

Example

Location and year treated
Snuff Mountain (1960)
Demmitt (1959)

In tables that are read across the page, the units may be in the stub column or in a separate column.

Example

Characteristic		Characteristic	Unit
Dbh (cm)		Dbh	cm
Total height (m)		Total height	m
Crown length (m)	**OR**	Crown length	m
Crown width (m)		Crown width	m
Total age (years)		Total age	years

Data columns

Data columns make up the body of the table. Usually they are figures, but they may be words.

Do not mix words and figures within one column.

Percentages

Put percentages, normally, to the right of the data to which they refer. For percentages of bottom totals, a single rule and side heading are used.

Total columns

The normal positions for total columns are right-hand side and bottom. For emphasis, you can put them on the left-hand side and top. Bottom-and-left or top-and-right totals should not be used. Total columns may be omitted as they constitute "derived data."

Footnotes, notes, and sources

Footnotes are indicated by superscript, lower-case, roman letters; they are consecutive from top left to bottom right. Footnotes are set one point size smaller than the table.

They are used to give more complete explanations of material in the title or the body of the table.

General comments may be designated as **Note**. If there are many abbreviations, they are best collected as one note rather than footnoting each separately.

Where the **source** of the material must be given, use the footnote form but without a footnote letter.

Sequence of source, notes, and footnotes
Notes come before source and precede the footnotes at the bottom of the table.

Example

Source: Jeyaratnam et al. (1986, 1987).
Note: ACHase = acetylcholinesterase.
[a] Sample size is given in parentheses.

Currencies

When currencies are mentioned in the table, give conversion rates to US dollars in a footnote.

Missing entries

Missing entries are indicated in various ways.

- *nr* and *na* — for not recorded and not available or not applicable (and define in a footnote),
- 0 for zero values, and
- a dash for unknown or where the other three are unsuitable.

Precision

Numerical data should not be presented in such a way that the appearance is given of greater precision than the accuracy of the method justifies.

Leading zeros

In columns containing decimals and whole numbers, always have a numeral, or zero, before the decimal.

Example

0.217	3.214
0.324	12.622
6.600	0.300

Derived columns

Do not include columns of data that can be derived easily from data in other columns — this often includes totals.

Text columns

In tables that have columns of text, if the text runs on to a second line, indent the subsequent lines (usually 1 en).

If the columns are narrow, no indent is used on the run-on lines and space is added between entries.

Run-on tables

Tables that continue on a second page have "*(continued)*" at the bottom of the first page (flush right and in italic) and "Table N continued." replaces the title above the continuation of the table or "Table N concluded." replaces the title above the last part of the table.

Table size

Tables are better set up full width of the text although it is not necessary to do this — particularly if the text column is wide and the table contains only a few columns of numbers.

Small tables are easiest for the reader to grasp and can be fitted into the layout near the text discussion. Large tables should be split up whenever the data thus separated need not be compared in detail.

Recast (edit) tables to fit across the page so that the reader does not have to turn the book sideways.

Table layout

Best layout

Tables with three criteria of classification (for example, year, species, and property) can be arranged in 12 ways; with four criteria, there are 96 arrangements, thus tables must be organized to emphasize the main comparison that the reader must make.

Do this by:

- Exploiting trends in the data and putting the principal comparisons within columns;
- Reducing the number of significant digits to a minimum;
- Omitting nonessential data such as laboratory numbers; and
- Substituting text references, or table footnotes, for columns with only a few data values or columns that do not show significant variations.

Series of tables

The layout of a series of tables should be similar.

If several tables are used to present the same type of data from several studies, use *exactly* the same **layout and spacing**.

Similarly, the **titles** should have the same format but the differences should be emphasized by putting them early in the title.

SEVEN — ACRONYMS AND ADDRESSES

ABBREVIATIONS AND OFFICIAL NAMES

Use the name of an organization in full in its official language the first time the organization is mentioned and include the official acronym or abbreviation, for example, CIDA or FAO, in parentheses. For long texts, it is useful to create a separate list of abbreviations as an appendix — order abbreviations alphabetically in this list.

Thereafter, use the acronym or abbreviation only. If, as for IDRC, there are official abbreviations in more than one language, use the one that is in the language of the publication.

See Chapter One — "Words" (page 1) for comments on treatment of organizational names.

Periods in abbreviations

IDRC's style is to use few periods (full stops) in abbreviations. Use them only when it is necessary to prevent ambiguity. Thus, we have more examples of when not to use a period than when to use it.

Use a period

- For abbreviations of a person's given names, that is, initials

  Examples

  "J.-M. Fleury" and "F.B. Davy," note that there is no space in the initials.
- Latin (which should be avoided) or other words and phrases that fulfill two criteria:
  - the abbreviated form does not need explanation and
  - it does not begin with the first letter and end with the last letter of the word.

  Examples

  etc., e.g., and i.e. require periods, whereas Mr, Dr, vs, and Ltd do not — the second group are known as contractions where the first and last letters are used. (Note that IDRC style is to avoid Latin-based abbreviations such as i.e., e.g., and etc.)

Do not use a period

- Abbreviations (or acronyms) defined in the text

  Exceptions

  If they will create confusion, such using one or more uncapitalized letters that have a standard meaning — for example, "a," "in," or "be."
- **International codes** such as metric or country designations that have been published by the International Organization for Standardisation.
- Abbreviations of **compass direction.**
- Both two-letter and three-letter, or more, **abbreviations of countries.**

  Example

  UK, US, USA, and the former USSR.

IDRC style is to use USA for the country and US as the adjective.

Example

US currency is the legal tender of the USA.

Abbreviations and articles

When an acronym or set of initials must be preceeded by the **indefinite article** (a or an), the following rule should be applied:

- If the abbreviation can be read as a word, for example, MAC for Mutual Aid Committee, then "a" or "an" is appropriate to the whole "word," for example, in this case "a MAC."
- If the abbreviation must be read as initials, that is, cannot be pronounced, for example, MVP for most valuable player, then "a" or "an" is appropriate to the first initial — for example, an MVP but a PO Box.

The **definite article** "the" should not normally preceed the abbreviation.

Example

The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is located in Hull, Canada: CIDA has projects in many parts of the world.

Sources

Several acronyms books are shelved in IDRC's Library in the reference section under 003. Of particular use are:

- *Acronyms, Initialisms and Abbreviations Dictionary* (2 volumes) [003.A3]
- *New Acronyms, Initialisms and Abbreviations: Supplement* [003.A31]
- *International Acronyms, Initialisms, and Abbreviations Dictionary: Preliminary Edition* [003.I52]
- *UN Terminology Bulletin* 311/Rev 1 [003.U53]

The list of acronyms produced by IDRC's Library contains some unofficial translations of institution names. These unofficial versions are marked by an asterisk. *Note*: This list is not maintained and may contain innaccuracies.

The Library's *Corporate Authorities File* is a useful source for abbreviations. A hard copy is kept in by the Writing and Development Unit.

IDRC 138efs: *Acronyms relating to international development* — Treat this reference [1980 edition] with great caution as it contains mistakes).

Miscellaneous points

Acronyms at the start of sentences

Do not start sentences with abbreviations (that includes numerals and generic names of organisms), except for acronyms or initials of organizations.

Abbreviations in reference lists

Reference lists or bibliographies in IDRC publications do not use abbreviated journal titles.

Christian era
AD and **BC**

IDRC Regional Offices
Acronyms for IDRC's regional offices (LARO, ASRO, etc.) must *not* be used in publications, they are for internal use only.

Time of day
Convert to 24-hour clock but if ante and post meridiem are needed, they should be **AM** and **PM**

Units of measure
See section on units in "One to Nine and Beyond."

University degrees
When university degrees are abbreviated, use **PhD**, **MSc**, and **BA**. Otherwise refer to doctoral, master's, and batchelor's degrees.

US two-letter state codes

Alabama	AL	Montana	MT
Alaska	AK	Nebraska	NE
Arizona	AZ	Nevada	NV
Arkansas	AR	New Hampshire	NH
California	CA	New Jersey	NJ
Colorado	CO	New Mexico	NM
Connecticut	CT	New York	NY
Delaware	DE	North Carolina	NC
District of Columbia	DC	North Dakota	ND
Florida	FL	Ohio	OH
Georgia	GA	Oklahoma	OK
Hawaii	HI	Oregon	OR
Idaho	ID	Pennsylvania	PA
Illinois	IL	Rhode Island	RI
Indiana	IN	South Carolina	SC
Iowa	IA	South Dakota	SD
Kansas	KS	Tennessee	TN
Kentucky	KY	Texas	TX
Louisiana	LA	Utah	UT
Maine	ME	Vermont	VT
Maryland	MD	Virginia	VA
Massachusetts	MA	Virgin Islands	VI
Michigan	MI	Washington	WA
Minnesota	MN	West Virginia	WV
Mississippi	MS	Wisconsin	WI
Missouri	MO	Wyoming	WY

Provincial two-letter codes

Alberta	AB	Alberta
British Columbia	BC	Colombie-Britannique
Manitoba	MB	Manitoba
Newfoundland	NF	Terre-Neuve
Labrador	LB	Labrador
New Brunswick	NB	Nouveau-Brunswick
Northwest Territories	NT	Territoires du Nord-ouest
Nova Scotia	NS	Nouvelle-Écosse
Ontario	ON	Ontario
Prince Edward Island	PEI	Ile-du-Prince-Édouard
Quebec	PQ or QC*	Québec
Saskatchewan	SK	Saskatchewan
Yukon	YT or YK*	Yukon

* For French, Yukon is abbreviated YK and the Government of Quebec uses QC.

ADDRESSES

Addresses in text

In the text of a publication, the form given for a person's or institution's address should be appropriate to the reader's needs.

If the reader is never likely to want to contact the person, something similar to the following would be appropriate.

Examples

Gilbert Croome, formerly of IDRC in Canada, suggested ....
Katherine Kealey of Ottawa was known to ....

If the full address of the person mentioned in the text is needed because he or she may be contacted by the reader, it should be given in parentheses:

Example

Bill Carman of IDRC (PO Box 8500, Ottawa, ON, Canada K1G 3H9) proposes ....

Participants lists

Addresses in participants lists for proceedings should be mailing addresses, but generally should not include street addresses or phone numbers.

Unpublished material

Because it is quite likely that the reader will want to contact the author of a **personal communication** or a citation from the **gray literature**, the full mailing address should be given in a footnote or the reference list.

IDRC's address

The Centre's address(es) is (are) generally given only as postal addresses.

EIGHT — PROOFREADING

Meaning	Marginal mark	In-line mark
lower case letter	lc	the Green book
capitalize as marked	cap	the good book
use small capitals	sc	am, PM
use italic type	ital	The Good Book
use roman (normal) type	rom	the book
use boldface type	bf	The Good Book
use lightface type	lf	the book
use capitals and small capitals	c&sc	A Style Manual
use superscript	2	the book2
use subscript	2	H2O
insert superscript	2	the book
insert subscript	2	HO
insert period	⊙	Read the book
insert comma	^,	leaves, buds and branches
insert semicolon	;	I came; I saw I conquored
insert colon	:	Read the following
insert apostrophe	ᵛ	Land s End
insert hyphen	=/=	up and down career
insert double quotes	ᵛ″/″ᵛ	He said book
insert single quotes	' / '	"Don't cry Fire!"
insert question mark	?	Can you write
insert en dash	~	pages 23–40
insert em dash	# M #	IDRC the International Development Research Centre
insert parentheses	(/)	the book a manual
insert brackets	[/]	book
insert solidus (slash)	/	50 km hour
Delete	ℐ	Idiots
Delete and close up	ℐ	idiots

LINE-BREAK HYPHENATION

Clear presentation

Ensure clear, unambiguous presentation by avoiding divided words at the end of the line as much as possible. If **word division** is necessary, good sense and readability should be your guides.

No more than two successive lines should end in a hyphen.

The last word in a paragraph or column or on a page should never be divided.

Do not divide

Do not hyphenate **abbreviations**, **numbers**, and **contractions**.

Examples

UNDP, 235 006 114.37, won't.

Abbreviations used with numbers should not be separated from the number.

Examples

16 kg, 0°C, s.4, 11:55 AM.

Misleading breaks

Avoid misleading breaks that may cause the reader to confuse one word with another, as in read-just and reap-pear. Similarly, such words as women and often should be left unbroken.

Caution

Watch out for words that change hyphenation with part of speech.

Example

Pro'ject (verb) and proj'ect (noun).

Source

Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary is the source for hyphenation rules for IDRC publications. Other dictionaries (particularly British dictionaries) may show slightly different hyphenation.

Rules

Few rules are absolute, but the accepted practice is summarized below.

Divide between syllables

Usually, divide words between syllables (*Webster's Dictionary* shows syllabication clearly for all its entries). However, not all **syllable breaks** are acceptable as line-end breaks.

Two-letter syllables

Do not carry two-letter syllables over to the next line. Similarly, final syllables in which a liquid l is the only audible vowel sound should not be carried over.

Examples

Fully, not ful-ly; stricken, not strick-en; pos-sible, not possi-ble; prin-ciples, not princi-ples.

Do not divide words of one syllable or words in which the second *syllable* contains only a silent *e*.

Examples

Aimed, helped, vexed, etc.

One-letter word divisions are not permissible. Such words as again, item, enough, and even should not be divided.

Avoid awkward divisions, such as would result from attempting to divide every, only, eighteen, and people.

Prefix and suffix

Divide between a **prefix** or **suffix** and the root word.

Examples

Pre-fix, re-location, care-less, world-wide.

Double consonant

When a consonant is double, divide it for the purposes of word division (equip-ping, rub-ber). See also "Words ending in *ing*" below.

Compound words

Break **hyphenated compounds** only at the hyphen, if possible.

Example

Court-martial, not court-mar-tial.

Divide **one-word compounds** between the elements.

Examples

Hot-house, sail-boat.

Words ending in ing

Most words ending in *ing* may be divided at that syllable; when the final consonant is doubled before *ing*, however, the second consonant is carried over.

Example

Bid-ding, control-ling.

When the verb has an *l* preceded by a consonant, carry over the letter preceding the *l*.

Example

Han-dling, dwin-dling, tin-kling.

TYPE FACES

Printer's characters

Keyboard characters are not always the same as true typeset characters. Common practice is to type en and em dashes with hyphens and to use typewriter quotation marks; these can be coded in WordPerfect (see page 83).

Underlining

Italic

Material marked with a straight underline should be changed to italic if your printer will produce this.

Boldface

A wavy underline, **not** a straight underline, indicates material to be set in bolface. Again, if your printer can produce this effect, do it.

Italics

IDRC style is to minimize the use of italic in the text.

Use italics

Use italic for **titles of books**, **periodicals**, **newspapers**, or **films** mentioned in the text (do **not** use italics for this purpose in the reference list).

Most **foreign words and phrases** but not proper names or commonly used words of foreign origin. Italics are used every time the word appears.

Examples

Barrio, chickwangue, fufu, but Channukah, bona fide, et al., in vitro, a priori, i.e., etc.

Scientific names of a genus, species, or subspecies but not of higher taxons. Varieties are italicized but cultivars (artificial varieties) are not.

Example

Leucaena leucocephala is a species of the family Mimosoideae and subfamily Leguminosae.

A word or expression that deserves particular **emphasis** in the context can be italicized or, even more effectively, boldfaced; however, this use should be rare.

Various **statistical abbreviations** and variables in **mathematic expressions**.

Do not use italics

Names of **television shows**, **song titles**, **titles of articles**, **poems**, or **chapters of a book** mentioned in the text are set off by quotation marks.

Cultivars in botanical names: they are set off by single quotes or preceded by "cv.". True varieties are italicized.

Abbreviations such as log (logarithm), max (maximum), exp (exponential function), tan (tangent), cos (cosine), cosh (hyperbolic cosine), lim (limit), arg (argument), cov (covariance), diag (diagonal), and var (variance) are set in roman.

Examples

$\sin x$ (not: $sin\ x$), $\log_a x$, z_{min}, mv_{av}.

WORDPERFECT CHARACTER CODES

Type 2 with Control held down (^2) then type numbers shown in last column with comma as shown; then press enter key. Most characters will show on screen but some will only appear as ■ or without the accent.

name	character	^2 code	comment
Spanish and Portugese			
—	á	1,27	on screen without accent
—	ã	1,77	
—	é	—	from keyboard or ^2: 1,41
—	í	1,49	
—	ó	1,59	
—	ú	1,67	
—	ñ	1,57	
—	Á	1,26	
—	Í	1,48	
—	Ó	1,58	
—	Ú	1,66	
—	Ñ	1,56	
sp ?	¿	4,8	on screen as ■
sp !	¡	4,7	on screen as ■
Mathematics			
per thou	‰	4,75	on screen as ■
degree	°	1,14	on screen as ■; the keyboard ° does not transfer to Ventura
	±	6,1	
	≤	6,2	
	≥	6,3	
	÷	6,8	
mult	×	6,39	
centre dot	·	6,32	

Greek

alpha	α	8,1	
beta	β	8,3	
gamma	γ	8,7	
delta	δ	8,9	
mu	μ	8,25	
sigma lc	σ	8,37	
sigma cap	Σ	8,36	
chi	χ	8,47	

Miscellaneous

open "	“	4,32	
close "	”	4,31	
open ’	‘	2,23	on screen as ■
close ’	’	2,22	on screen as ■
N dash	–	4,33	
M dash	—	4,34	
copyright	©	4,23	on screen as ■
bullet	•	4,0	
check	✓	5,23	on screen as ■

NINE — FOOTNOTES AND QUOTES

FOOTNOTES

IDRC's style

Use as few footnotes to the text as possible. If the material is important enough to mentioned, it belongs within the text, otherwise it should be omitted. Referencing is by author–date within the text not as footnotes.

Text

Numbering

Footnotes to the text are numbered consecutively through the paper or chapter with superscript Arabic numerals.

Position

Numbers for footnotes should be outside any adjacent punctuation.

Example

This footnote number is correctly positioned.[4]

The full note appears at the bottom of the text column in which they are mentioned. If the **column is short** because it is the end of a chapter, or there is a table or figure to complete it, the footnote still follows immediately after the text.

Separate the footnote from the text with a 6-pica hairline rule. Where there are several footnotes on one page, only one hairline is used. Notes have an em indent followed by the superscript number, a space, then the text.

Example

---

[1] This footnote is correctly set up if the beginning of the word "Example" is taken to be the edge of the image area.

Tables

Numbering

Footnotes to tables are denoted by superscript lower-case letters. Source and notes for tables appear with the footnotes (see Chapter 6 — "Graphics and Tables," page 65).

Position

Position table footnotes directly below the table. Generally set full width of table; however, if there are many short footnotes they may be set in two columns on wide tables. Sequence below table is: Source, Notes, then Footnotes.

QUOTATIONS

Accuracy

Quotations from another source must be reproduced accurately.

Editors can rarely check the original so they must, largely, assume that the author's version is correct. Spelling, italics, and punctuation must follow the **original** exactly even where these do not follow IDRC's style.

Any **inaccuracies** must be retained but should be identified as being in the original by **"sic"** in brackets immediately after them or by suggesting a correction in brackets.

Examples

"The plant had prulep [sic] leaves," or "The plant had prulep [purple?] leaves".

Any **change from the original** must be shown by spaced periods (**ellipsis**) for omissions and **square brackets** (not parentheses) for insertions. See sample quotation on page 88 and Chapter 2 — "The Serial Comma and Other Devices" (see page 21).

Typographic treatment of quotations in IDRC publications depends on their length. What is long or short is a subjective decision, but more than four typed lines, that is, about 40 words, should be considered as a **long quotation**.

Long quotations

Long quotations are usually set in a smaller type size than the main text and in block style, that is, indented from both margins.

In word-processed material, **block quotations** only have the width of the typed column reduced. Quotation marks are not used outside a long quotation but may be needed if there is an **internal quotation**: in which case, use **double quotes (")**.

Short quotations

Short quotations are set in the same size as the main text and run on within it. They are distinguished by quotation marks around them. IDRC style is to use **double quotes (")** with **single quotes (')** for **internal quotations**.

If **text before or after the quotation** leads into or follows on from the quotation, no punctuation is needed.

Example

The editorial policy states that "If text before or after the quotation leads into or follows on from the quotation, no punctuation is needed."

Colons, commas, or even periods may, however, be used to lead into a quotation. Punctuation is usually used where the transition is abrupt.

If the source of the quotation must be given in the text at this point, and it should include the specific page, include it before the quotation rather than attaching it to the end. If it must be at the end, it is an insertion and therefore in brackets.

Example

> The editorial policy (Campbell 1985) states that "if the citation is at the end of the quotation, it is an insertion and must therefore be in brackets."

Omissions from quotations

Use an **ellipsis** (...) to indicate **omission** of one or more words in a piece of text that has been quoted from another communication.

Ellipsis with punctuation

If the words that have been omitted were originally followed by a punctuation mark other than a dash, include the mark before continuing or closing the quotation.

If the punctuation mark followed the last word quoted directly, then there is no space before the punctuation mark and the ellipsis follows it.

If the missing words were between the last word and the punctuation mark, then a space follows the last word, then the ellipsis, then the punctuation mark.

Examples

> "However, ... a space follows the last word ...."

Do not use ellipsis marks

At the beginning of a quotation if you have indicated the omission of words by some other means, such as using a lower-case letter to begin the quoted material.

Example

> In Mac's words, the sales representative didn't "know his ears from an em dash."

In this example, the content of the sentence (as well as the use of the lower-case "k") lets the reader know that the speaker said more than was actually quoted.

Sample quotation

It was thought to be so important and significant that it was reserved for the Prime Minister to announce it in the House during his budget speech (Manley 1974, p. 233). [1]

> This year we had our first Common Entrance Examination on the new system of free education.... [2] Last year when we were still on the old system ... [3] 2000 children won free places, 2200 had to pay school fees, and 550 could only get in by paying the full uneconomic [sic] [4] costs of the school.

Notes for sample quotation

[1a] Position for source of quotation (should include exact page of quotation).

[1b] Punctuation is appropriate to relationship between the preceding material and the quotation.

[2] Ellipsis with punctuation is tight to preceding word where punctuation followed the word in the original but is spaced from word when punctuation followed the omission.

[3] Ellipsis without punctuation.

[4] Unusual spellings, improbable statements, etc. in the original are shown by sic, Latin for "thus," in brackets [ ] to show that the original has been followed.

Remove direct quotations

Try to remove as many direct quotations as possible because Canadian copyright law may require permission to be obtained from the copyright holder.

Punctuation in quotations

For more on punctuation in quotations, see Chapter 2 — "The Serial Comma and Other Devices" (page 21). See *Chicago Manual of Style* (10.31–10.40) for more on ellipsis.

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